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Contributions to *New Era in Education* are welcomed. Articles in the first part of the journal are refereed. Reports, short articles or views on any aspect that relates to the principles of the World Education Fellowship are also very welcome. The Editor is anxious to receive details of good practice and responses to themes covered.

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Editorial Visions to Reality

Sneh Shah

The most recent international conference of World Education Fellowship that took place in Tasmania had Vision to Action as its theme. This was partly a reflection on the vision represented in a project that WEF Australia had been working on for some time, and it seemed appropriate to look towards putting that vision into practice. The conference was structured so that from discussing visions we could begin to appreciate the need for new ways of thinking, an important precursor for new thinking for a better organised world. Education would have a critical part to play in engaging that vision of the better organised world. The four key aspects of that education were seen to be: imaginative ways of thinking and knowing, care and compassion for others, concern for the common good, and a new concept of environmental education. Over the next few years different countries that sent representatives to Tasmania are likely to see deliberations over these themes and applications as befits the particular country.

Is it possible, however, that the pressures of new technology and faster communication will limit initially the impact of the Tasmanian conference, and in the long term the creation of new visions? If that is the case, it may be more appropriate to consider where visions come from, and how we can ensure that having visions is an integral part of our thinking and living.

Visions can be completely idealistic in that we may not have control over the underlying factors, such as a world which has twelve hours of sunshine everywhere everyday. Other visions can be on surface difficult to achieve, such as peace in every part of the world, but worthwhile working towards provided there is understanding about the obstacles to achieving that aim. Visions can be already a reality for another person, group of people, or a different part of the world. It needs someone who has a mind not cluttered by the superficially important clutter of modern day living to see it.

My vision is that of my niece, Mansi, eleven years old, on the balcony of Paradise Lodge in the

Masaai Mara Game Reserve in Kenya, looking out onto the river in which a number of hippopotamuses were lying, within a background of a peaceful savannah background. Without any obvious reason she said,

I love the Masaai Mara, everything is so peaceful, the animals are happy and we are happy.

To me these few words of Mansi were almost a shock; what she said was very obvious, and something that I had taken for granted. But her words jolted me into recognising that anyone, especially children, who stop to look and think, can see and understand reality, which is likely to be a vision for many others. As human beings we have brains, and if we use them and think logically, then we have a large number of real and wishful visions.

Ensuring that those visions become an integral part of our lives demands a key role for education. But we also need to think why it is that many visions of educationalists have not been turned into reality. One important lesson for us is that the world is dominated by those people that have power as their vision. Imitating politicians is not the answer but educationalists have to learn what actually determines policy, and what they need to do in order to influence that.

This does not mean that visions have to be abandoned. Perhaps the most recent example of a vision achieving victory is that of the end of apartheid in South Africa. That was a clear example of a combination of the determination of many human beings to support and fight for human rights, and to understand and influence people so that change would take place. In education, teaching the next generation is obviously important, but both teachers and learners have to get to know how change comes about, and be prepared to work hard for it. Current thinking in education equates achievement of an individual learner with marks and grades; our vision has to be every individual's achievement being equated with the full development of their faculties, and especially the power of thinking.

Intercultural Reality and A Multiethnic Vision

Nancy Pine (U.S.) and Zhang Yafei (China)

The¹ global landscape is gradually but inexorably changing from semi-isolated nations with culturally dominant populations to an intercultural global community with multiethnic populations. This change will impact all members of the world community for decades. The vision of a global community enriched by the voices of its myriad cultural and linguistic groups is a profound and exhilarating one. The reality of ignorance that exists about intercultural dynamics and intercultural communication, however, are emblazoned in daily headlines. Hate crimes, anti-bilingual amendments, isolationist national policies are continuous reminders of how much the dream eludes us. Although individuals and groups have advanced in interethnic understanding and tolerance of differences, misunderstanding constricts the quality of interactions even for those with considerable cross-cultural experience.

Because each culture is uniquely complex, only occasionally can an “outsider” predict how a group member will react in specific situations. One of our own experiences provides a useful example. While visiting the United States Zhang Yafei saw a news program that showed the California lottery winner, a 50 year old of Chinese origin, being presented with a huge sample check of his winnings. The winner’s name was written in bold red letters. Zhang Yafei’s instant reaction was that this was a completely inappropriate display since names written in red usually indicate the death sentence. Indeed, the winner later expressed dissatisfaction about this to a Chinese newspaper, yet the European American and African American presenters had no idea that their gift might be offensive.

Those who have experience with interethnic communication recognize that despite goodwill and a desire to understand “the other,” blunders occur. The question that lies ahead in this increasingly multiethnic world, therefore, is how do we become aware of misunderstandings and how do we learn from them? This is particularly important in the compressed multiethnic communities of the classrooms.

This paper, grounded in the authors’ everyday experiences of cross-cultural research, suggests two methods for moving towards a vision of working productively in multiple cultures and the implications these methods have for classrooms.

We are both educators who have collaborated in Chinese/U.S. studies for the last decade, and during that time have uncovered two helpful techniques. We have discovered that our own ethnocentricity can become a lever for recognizing our limitations in given situations and for identifying cultural mismatches. In so doing, we have been able to illuminate unexpected or “unusual” patterns or ways of knowing in the other person’s culture. Ethnocentrism has been the scourge of research for decades with researchers foisting their

own cultural perspectives on their subjects as the norm for humankind. By using ethnocentrism as a tool, however, we have found that the person in control (researcher, teacher, professor, business manager) can begin to recognize cultural mismatches and work toward comprehension of “the other’s” worldview.

In addition, the use of an analytical semiotic model can help identify specific cultural elements of a mismatch. This second technique, devised by C. S. Peirce for logic and word function (Nöth, 1990; Chen & Cui, 1989), has helped us identify specific cultural perspectives at various points within a mismatch. This model enables us to distinguish the elements of each mismatch from each of our cultural perspectives. By employing these strategies we find it possible to first identify and then unravel puzzling cultural interactions. By doing this we move forward in our ability to comprehend the complexity of cultural perspectives and to envision future possibilities.

We want to make it absolutely clear that we are discussing normal, everyday cultural differences and mismatches, not antisocial behaviors such as the intolerance of ethnic or racial groups. We are not talking about traditions that still linger in parts of the world that deprive individuals, for example, of fundamental human rights. Rather we are discussing subtle clusters of behavior that differ from cultural group to cultural group and which often impede learning for students whose teachers and professors come from groups different from themselves. The learning in these cases is not impeded because of malicious intent, but because the teacher does not recognize the students’ learning styles and behavioral nuances that could be used to enhance learning.

The Problem

For the dominant group in any country such as the European American in the United States or the Han nationality in China², the tendency is to think that their way is the norm, that other styles of learning and behaving are “wrong” or at least “peculiar” or “quaint.” When individuals cross into a culture not their own, they stumble on unfamiliar situations unless they are truly bicultural in those two cultures. Often, as in the lottery check example, they are not at all aware that they have blundered. Adults who are used to working in different cultures recognize that experiences are viewed through cultural lenses and they allow for errors. Although they may grumble—Why don’t they look me in the eye and smile sometimes? Why do they hug each other in public? Why do they just stand there and stare at me?—their personal interactions with people of other cultures allow for the fact that when they are functioning in an unfamiliar culture they are never going to get it quite right. For adults not used to

crossing cultural boundaries angst increases when unfamiliarity is encountered and defensiveness or withdrawal often follow (Rosaldo, 1989; Scollon & Scollon, 1995).

Careful investigations such as those by Edward T. Hall have made us aware of different worldviews (e.g., 1966, 1983). His studies, especially of time and space, have provided major breakthroughs for understanding particular cultural phenomena. Nevertheless, others' experiences (see for example Au, 1980; Foster, 1994; Heath, 1983), as well as our own, suggest that Hall's extensive work merely uncovers the tip of the iceberg—the bulk of interethnic puzzles remain.

Our methods help illuminate those times when, whether experienced or not, a person is unaware of a cultural mismatch or, at best, suspects something is different but has no idea how to come to grips with the disequilibrium. For example, the U.S. author experienced a disconcerting feeling when she started to cross a busy street in a Chinese city. Standing on the sidewalk edge, she leaned forward ever so slightly in anticipation of crossing the street after a bicycle had passed. Her movement, which she was not conscious of, caused the bicyclist to stop rapidly, which in turn caused a reaction in other advancing bicyclists. For Pine it was embarrassing and puzzling, for the bicyclist annoying. But to neither participant in this mismatch was it obvious that the situation was caused by a trivial physical movement learned through years of acculturation.

How do we recognize that such a mismatch is occurring? Secondly, once we recognize this, how do we understand it so that we can comprehend more fully “the other's” perspective of the event and recognize the dynamics at play? The following methods, that have slowly emerged from our own cross-cultural work, may provide modest gains for others.

Method 1: Ethnocentricity as a Tool for Interethnic Understanding

The problems of being bounded by a particular cultural perspective have haunted research fields as well as classrooms for generations. Geertz (1973) to Giroux (1991) to Foster (1994) all deal with the liabilities caused by the ethnocentrism of those in powerful positions who view their own world perspectives as the ultimate truth, as the universal perspective. In the classroom, a long list of studies in the U.S. and Western Europe have turned up the unconscious valuing of one cultural way of knowing over another (e.g., Au, 1980; Darder, 1991; Heath, 1983). Teachers or professors from the dominant culture often overlook the learning strengths of their non-mainstream students. The intent of this paper is not to blame educators for their ethnocentric perspectives—which everyone has—but rather to understand how this “liability,” this particular way of viewing the world, can be utilized to enhance awareness of multiethnic perspectives.

Our cross-cultural research has taught us that the “problem” of ethnocentricity can become a helpful tool

for prying open our awareness. It can act as a tap on the shoulder that says, “Be alert. There's more than meets the eye in the dissonance or peculiar interaction that just occurred with that student.” It enhances understanding and comprehension of both the other's culture and our own. It creates a productive disequilibrium. Piaget (1937/1976) and Inhelder (Piaget & Inhelder, 1948/1968) defined disequilibrium as a state of imbalance between new and old concepts and their opposing interpretations. As children encounter new ideas they try to assimilate them into existing cognitive structures, causing a resistance to change. As time elapses they eventually accommodate their outmoded knowledge in order to incorporate the new concepts. In our experience, ethnocentric concepts appear to behave like the child's outmoded concepts. Judging the other's “strangeness” through our own cultural lenses is much easier than coming to grips with it in new ways.

During our own research in each other's cultures—in the European-American United States and Han China—situations in “the other” culture have struck us as strange, unusual or frustrating. Things were not “quite right” and we found ourselves in a state of disequilibrium. The incidents occurred in unexpected ways, rather like walking through tall grass and stepping on an unknown object. They were not the obvious difficulties of learning to read a sign in a different script or use cumbersome eating utensils.

Nancy Pine in China reacted in an unexpectedly strong manner, for instance, when she was waiting to lead a seminar and her graduate student host began looking through her notebook of lecture notes. As the student leafed through the pages she wanted to grab them back and say, “Those are mine. They're private.” Zhang Yafei, on the other hand, has found gift giving an exceedingly awkward and embarrassing experience with U.S. citizens. Why would they be so impolite and greedy as to open the gifts while he was present and exclaim over how wonderful they are?

We quietly carried these incidents and others around with us and wondered about them. Why would anyone do something like that? Had we done something wrong? Even though we both had vast experience in cross-cultural situations and, we thought, in intercultural communication, we were stymied—bothered—by these interactions.

As we joined our research efforts and as we slowly analyzed such cross-cultural puzzles, we realized that our ethnocentric perspectives were not a hindrance, but instead provided us with a valuable tool. Our noticing of such “strange” events was possible because of our cultural foundations, and this noticing opened up possibilities for insights about unfamiliar cultural ways. In turn, this insight illuminated our own cultural ways. We discovered that by being attuned to what we find unusual or uncomfortable, we can identify important cultural mismatches. Over time our ethnocentric grounding has acted as a metal detector to attract our attention to areas of fascinating difference between our cultures.

In the notebook situation, for example, it was Pine's visceral response to having her notebook taken that opened up insights about where the cultural mismatch lay. By saying this is wrong (for her) it was possible for her to begin identifying what was right (for the Chinese graduate student). It was okay, from the student's perspective, to take the notes—she was curious, wanted to read more and it is acceptable in China to look at something of someone else—even if it means (from a European-American's perspective) taking the item from another's hand or staring. In Zhang's gift giving experiences it is wrong and unpleasant (from his cultural perspective) to have a gift opened in the presence of the giver. Deference should be shown. By identifying what was wrong (for him) in these circumstances he could begin defining what is right (for the European American).

Method 2: A Semiotic Model as a Tool for Interethnic Clarification

The second method for advancing interethnic clarity is derived from Peirce's framework for interpreting the world of signs. Berger (1989), in an introductory semiotics book, describes signs as "things which stand for other things" (p. 3). They not only stand for something else (the word *dog* stands for the actual animal), but the signs mean something. Signs do not need to be words; they can be anything—a stapler, a vcr, or a set of cultural understandings. Although Peirce's work was primarily restricted to the realm of words and logic, others have extended it to semiotic systems such as gesture and facial expression (for example, Eckman & Friesen, 1969; Kendon, 1986). In like manner, we have extended it to cultural phenomena viewed cross culturally.

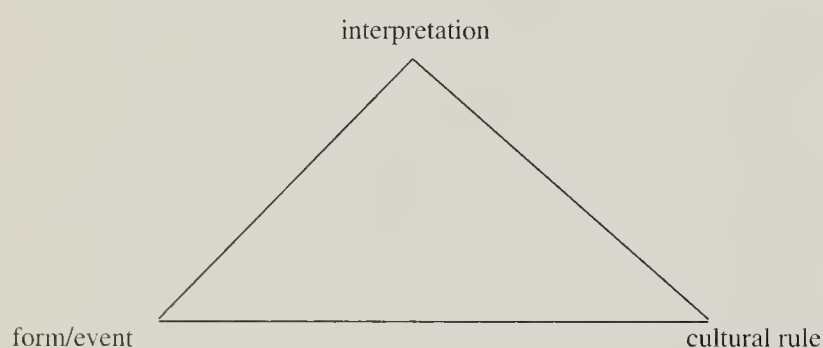


Figure 1.
Adaption of Pierce's model of the sign

Peirce saw a sign as having three components—the form which includes how an event, idea or object is represented for the moment; the interpretant which stands for the person or thing that interprets the sign; and "the object" or concept which encompasses the meaning of the sign, the object that is referred to or the rule (Nöth, 1990). The interpretant mediates between the form and the "object," and one person's interpretation of a word or event may be quite different

from another person's. For simplicity's sake we have renamed the latter two components, "interpretation" and "cultural rule" (Figure 1).

Some examples from our data will illustrate how the Peircian triangle provides a second method for unravelling interethnic puzzles. Zhang Yafei, while in the United States, was bothered by a paper skeleton hanging over him in a restaurant. He knew that it was a decoration for a spirited U.S. holiday, Halloween, but it still bothered him. He wrote at the time, "I refrained from looking up at the skeleton as there was some intuitive uneasiness growing inside me while eating with a skeleton staring at me." Despite his understanding, his own cultural perspective made him uneasy.

In another situation, a U.S. researcher on our team was frustrated that during a school visit his hosts kept refilling his tea cup. After the initial cup, which he had accepted for politeness, he declined their offers. In spite of this they kept refilling it. To be polite, he kept drinking the tea; this in turn produced a refilled cup. During lengthy meetings this produced a very uncomfortable situation. His physical and emotional discomfort became strong clues that something was amiss between his cultural assumptions and those of his hosts. He was unsure what they were, but it was clear that his Sorcerer Apprentice's cup was a problem.

By analyzing these two events using the Peircian model we discovered that rather than just view such events with discomfort, we could identify the dynamics at work in each cross-cultural mismatch. We found that a simple chart of the three Peircian components for each culture (see Figure 2) was helpful in clarifying cultural perspectives.

Zhang Yafei had confronted a U.S. cultural tradition through his Chinese cultural lens. The U.S. form—a publicly displayed skeleton—caused uneasiness and he recognized this. Why would anyone hang up a skeleton in public? In order to give more definition to his reaction we looked at Chinese practices related to skeletons. By doing this he was able to find two cultural generalizations that illuminated the mismatches. In China skeletons are never displayed in public; and, in addition, skeletons represent bad luck and evil. Once the Chinese perspective was clarified, we returned to the restaurant display and identified that in the United States a skeleton represented a playful scariness for a fun-filled holiday. Finally, in discussing these cultural contradictions with others, we were able to clarify the simple underlying cultural rules that caused Zhang Yafei's initial uneasiness. In Han China, the skeleton symbolizes evilness; in the European American (and other) U.S. cultures, publicly displayed skeletons are a gleeful means for celebrating Halloween. When these two disparate uses came together in one person's experience, a strong reaction occurred. By understanding it, he was able to say, "Okay, I don't like it, but I not only understand why Americans do this, but I now know, specifically, what is causing my discomfort." The completed chart of the mismatch would look like the following:

China	United States
Event/Form: {Whole skeleton never displayed publicly}	Event/form: Publicly displayed skeleton
Interpretation (of U.S. form): Bad luck; evilness	Interpretation (of U.S. form): Fun; holiday celebration
Cultural Rule: Skeletons represent evilness	Cultural Rule: Skeletons can be used for gleeful celebration

Figure 2. Mismatch chart for restaurant skeleton analysis

In like manner we analyzed the tea drinking situation and identified the three components (event or form, interpretation, and cultural rule) for each culture. In so doing we were able to identify not only our colleague’s distress, but also the misunderstandings caused by several other drink-related incidents.

Our colleague’s ethnocentric perspective had alerted him to a mismatch, but what next? We began the analysis by first describing his experience (the event) from the Chinese hosts’ perspective (see Figure 3). They offered a drink; our colleague said, “No, thank you”; they gave him the drink. We then discussed how this would play out in the U.S. among European Americans. It became immediately clear that if someone turned down a drink, the host would not give it to the guest. The next categories in the chart, interpretation and cultural rule for each culture, were more difficult to identify, and we found our ethnocentric perspectives helped at this point. From our colleague’s perspective, he did not want the tea but felt he must drink it to be polite. Through reflection and discussion we were then able to clarify his cultural rule which read something like this—Don’t force drinks on guests who do not want them. But what was the Chinese rule and interpretation? By observing other drink related situations and, eventually, by asking Chinese why they gave unrequested drinks, it became apparent that a Chinese host gives tea to a guest even if the guest protests. The key to this mismatch turned out to be that Chinese do not expect their guests to feel obligated to drink the tea. At this point the Chinese cultural rule became more obvious—One gives a drink whether or not a guest requests it; the guest can drink it—or not (Figure 3).

Although this is a complicated explanation for a trivial interaction, often clusters of seemingly simple mismatches cause cross-cultural rifts and misunderstanding that, if allowed to go unchecked, can fester into larger misunderstandings. We found that several other bothersome frustrations related to drink etiquette fell into place and became much less irritating for both cultural groups once we had unravelled this first one. The simplest of cultural habits can be the most hidden.

Implications for Education

Although these sample situations may seem far removed from classrooms, an important link exists. By recognizing an ethnocentric perspective in confounding interactions with their students, educators in multiethnic classrooms from kindergarten through university can begin to identify the assumptions that students are making. For example, if a student is resistant to making an artifact such as a skeleton, rather than attributing the resistance to stubbornness or recalcitrance, it might be helpful to identify the cultural foundations that child values. When students differ culturally from their teachers or professors they are often judged wrongly because of the educators’ blindness to their own ethnocentrism. The downcast eyes of Latino or Filipino students are interpreted as disrespect, whereas they cast down their eyes to show respect. The artfully woven storytelling techniques of an African-American are interpreted as disjointed meandering by the European-American teacher (Cazden, 1988). A Chinese child’s fascination with visual detail is considered overly fastidious by a U.S. teacher. An American child is chastised for his original

China	United States
Event/Form: Drink offered; respondent answers “No”; drink is given	Event/Form: {Wouldn’t give drink if guest said “No.”}
Interpretation: Give more tea to be polite; it is okay if guest leaves it untouched	Interpretation (of Chinese event/form): I don’t want it, but I must drink it to be polite
Cultural Rule: Give drink regardless of guest’s response	Cultural Rule: Only give drink if the guest requests it

Figure 3. Mismatch chart for the tea-drinking analysis.

drawing because he did not follow the Chinese teacher's detailed instructions for replicating her drawing. The school board blames minority-group teachers for having difficulty passing a Eurocentric exam.

The incidents discussed in this paper arose among adults of equal status. Even so, they caused discomfort. As the power imbalance increases between the judger and the judged member of the other culture, consequences become more serious. In such situations children as well as older students are placed at risk. In the classroom, differences and mismatches can exist in subtle ways, and if misinterpreted, the consequences—especially consequences that accumulate over several years—can have considerable impact on students (Foster, 1994; Heath, 1983; Philips, 1983; Scollon & Scollon, 1981).

How would young Chinese children feel if their teacher insisted that they make a skeleton? How would children react if they were not thirsty but the teacher insisted they finish a drink because they had asked for it (from the child's perspective, out of politeness)? In many such situations they would be blamed for their lack of interest or their thoughtlessness. Historically their line of defense becomes one of acquiescence, shame or anger. In universities and colleges students' cultures are often excluded from academic knowledge by mainstream faculty. Non-mainstream graduate students, for example, often report that when they offer cultural examples familiar to themselves, the professor brushes them aside as idiosyncratic rather than as legitimate cultural patterns that raise questions about mainstream theory (Darder, 1991; Pine & Joshua, 1996).

We are ourselves life long educators immersed in multiethnic worlds, and the struggles described in this paper are our own as well as that of others. With few exceptions, educators work vigorously to provide better lives and education for their students, and in no way are we intending to lay blame for ethnocentrism.

Nevertheless, all educators, kindergarten through university, must be attuned to the "irregular behavior" of students from cultures different from their own. This means working toward an understanding of students' "puzzling" behaviors and trying to understand what they represent and the foundation from which they come. The first step in unravelling such puzzles can be to identify one's own ethnocentric assumptions. The chances are great for misinterpreting students' behavior and learning patterns. In the fast paced, demanding setting of classrooms, teachers must make rapid judgments about student responses, and when their students are from cultures different from their own, it is quite possible to undercut the students' cultural foundation for success.

The analytical methods that have grown out of our own cross-cultural work are offered as a beginning model for unravelling interethnic puzzles. For some events the model yields a transparency to previously strange interactions. The cultural mismatches become obvious although they were not when they occurred.

When people react to signs or cultural events across cultures there is something new to be discovered using Peirce's classic model. When coupled with awareness of ethnocentricity and its concomitant disequilibrium, it helps define cultural uniqueness and difference in particular situations. In turn this type of analysis provides individuals access to the elements of cultural mismatches that often confound cross cultural interactions.

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² The Han nationality accounts for about 90 percent of the multimationalities in China. There are an estimated 53 nationalities.

A Study of the Functional Use of Language by Portuguese Bilingual Children in Bournemouth

Brenda Lawrence and Sandy Mealing

Summary.

The aim of the study was to examine the functional use bilingual pupils make of English and Portuguese at school. The study tried to ascertain whether literacy skills in Portuguese were being lost the longer the time these Madeira born pupils spent in English Education. It was thought that spoken English may become more dominant than spoken Portuguese. Proficiency in both languages was measured in terms of the errors made and the range of vocabulary used.

Language in Portuguese and English was generated by giving each pupil the same picture story book and asking them to tell the story in their own words, first in English and, on another day, in Portuguese. Recordings were made of the spoken language and the tapes transcribed. Comparisons were made between the total number of words spoken, the range of vocabulary and the kinds of errors made in each language.

The results of the study suggested that spoken English was not replacing spoken Portuguese. In fact, more words were spoken in Portuguese than in English. Similarly the total number of errors was greater in spoken English than in Portuguese. Whereas the use of spoken English may seem to improve the longer time spent in English education; spoken Portuguese appears constant. Further investigation into the functional use made of written language amongst the sample group would give an interesting comparison of proficiency in spoken and written language.

Introduction.

The study focuses on the children's functional use of language within a local primary school. The children

in this study were born in Madeira and have recently been brought to Bournemouth by parents seeking work in the local hotels and catering industry. As a consequence, these migrant workers and their children are living in an environment which demands that they have access to two languages, their first language, Portuguese, and the unfamiliar second language, English. Thus, the study's main objective is to consider if literacy skills in Portuguese begin to diminish the longer these children spend in England , or whether proficiency in spoken English and Portuguese remain the same and is sufficient for them to benefit from them being bilingual. This in turn raises further issues, namely

- how can error analysis give us a better understanding of the use of language?
- how can English speaking teachers meet the needs of these pupils learning English without devaluing the first language?
- how can these pupils be given cognitively demanding work that does not depend on sophisticated use of language?

In order to address the above concerns, it was necessary to consider the unique nature of this community and the use made of both languages within a school context. Thus the first part of this study will consider the background and characteristics which identify this growing community. The second part will focus on the methodology, how the language samples were collected and analysed. The final part will discuss the results.

Background and Characteristics of the Study

Historically a number of people from non-English speaking nations decide for a variety of reasons to settle in England. Madeira has a long history of such migrants, many of whom have recently settled in Bournemouth. These people wish to retain their own language and culture but find themselves and their children unable to communicate in the unfamiliar second language, in this case, English. This problem becomes more acute for the children from these families and the English speaking schools they find themselves in. Often there is not a sufficient number of these children, or adequate support to allow them to continue their education in their own language. So the only option for them is to acquire basic survival language as rapidly as possible in order to begin the curriculum in the second language and continue to learn at the appropriate level.

The lack of expert support and the time lapse in acquiring enough language could put these children at a disadvantage. They may be given academic work at a lower level, simply because they do not have the range of vocabulary in the second language to understand the teacher or read text books. This in turn could not only lead to a rejection of the first language because it appears to have little value at school, but also of school itself.

The primary school in Bournemouth which is the focus of this study, has recently received an influx of migrant workers children from Madeira who have little or no skills in English and provides a good example of the dilemma outlined above. The teachers in the school cannot speak Portuguese and so there is no opportunity to allow these pupils to continue learning through the first language. Although there is a significant number of Portuguese speakers in the school, they are organised within classes of their age group and as a consequence there are usually only one or two pupils in each class, thus making it difficult for them to use their first language and forcing them to communicate to the teacher or other pupils in the second language. In order to access the curriculum, they will have to rapidly acquire skills in English. As a consequence, there is a chance that initially, they will be working at a lower level academically as the work in text books will be inaccessible due to language complexity. There is a chance these pupils could become frustrated and reject their first language as they feel it has no value in the school environment. They may on the other hand, associate success and acceptance with acquiring skills in the new second language. However, feelings of frustration and low self esteem may lead them to develop negative attitudes towards learning and a wish to only converse in Portuguese or not at all as this gives them a feeling of identity and some value.

This study focuses on these children and the levels of second language acquisition compared with first language and then considers the wider issues of how they can best be supported within school. By comparing use of first and second language it maybe possible to see if skills in the former are being lost as

more emphasis is placed on the latter. Ways of increasing acquisition of English without having to reduce the cognitive level of work will be considered so that they can have access to the National Curriculum offered to their class mates.

At the time of study there were fifteen Portuguese pupils in the primary school ranging from five to eleven years in age and with varying degrees of skills in first and second language. However only eight of these pupils had sufficient spoken skills in both English and Portuguese to be involved and thus they became the main focus for the direct study as direct comparisons of their performance in both languages could be made. Interestingly only four of the fifteen pupils had sufficient skills in reading and writing in both languages.

Although all the children in this study were born in Madeira, the level and use of language in Portuguese and English was perceived to be quite different within the group. There seemed varying levels of use of English and Portuguese based on a variety of factors including length of time in England, age of pupils, gender, individual learning strategies, learning difficulties etc. Fishman (1971) in Baker (1993) suggests that the use made of two languages relates more to the individuals' needs which seem to be able to write and understand English at school; but still to understand and speak Portuguese, particularly at home.

Sometimes children from migrant workers may exhibit poor literacy skills in both first and second languages and this can often lead to the conclusion that this is due to individual deficiencies. Hansguard (1975) in Baker (1993) referred to the notion of an individual having limited vocabulary in either language as "semilingualism". However more recent studies Cummins (1976), Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) suggest that the underdevelopment of language is more likely to reflect the social and economic experience of children in that they are frequently moved from one school or country to another and thus do not get the opportunity to settle into and benefit from any one education system. The nature of work that the parents are involved in may also mean little time is spent supporting children with their school work in either language. Parents might also perceive English to be more prestigious and consequently not be so concerned about maintaining Portuguese to a high level. Although not highlighted in this task pupils who have some literacy skills in Portuguese appear to acquire skills in English with more ease. Conversely those who experience a learning difficulty in the first language, are likely to do so in the second language, Dulay and Burt, (1974) and Hall (1995).

Learning difficulties in general and learning a language can easily be mistaken as the same thing. Hall (1995) states that support for a learning difficulty is very different from the support needed for second language learning and that it is vital to make this distinction. The longer spent in school enables possible learning difficulties and health problems, which may affect learning to be picked up more readily.

A variety of methods have been used to measure competency in two languages. Questionnaires have provided information about when, where and by whom an individual speaks two languages. However Skutnabb-Kangas (1993) suggests that the emphasis in language testing should be considerably reduced by making sure that new concepts taught are embedded in meaningful context Cummins (1984). Frederickson and Cline (1996) have shown for example how the concept of measuring height can be context embedded so as to meet the needs of a second language learner, yet still remain cognitively demanding. Thus it is likely that worthwhile assessment of language competency would also prove more appropriate if it were carried out in a situation where the context was meaningful to the pupils.

The methodology used in order to analyse spoken language is crucial. Error analysis is seen as a possible way of analysing the use of spoken language. Damico et al (1983) have suggested that pragmatic errors such as hesitation, pauses and repetitions used in conjunction with syntax errors gives a better indicator of language disorders. Baradas (1990) in Frederickson and Cline (1996) extends this further by including code mixing criteria, that is the borrowing of words and phrases from the first language to use in the second language and vice versa.

The Study

The study aimed to compare spoken English and Portuguese. The sample chosen were children who had sufficient oral skills in both languages. The children were given a task that was of sufficient cognitive demand yet was embedded in meaningful context Cummins (1984). In order to generate spontaneous language that could be compared in both English and Portuguese, two picture books were chosen. The first book "Rosie's Breakfast" Newcombe (1990), was used to introduce the task to the children and to make them feel at ease with the tape recorder. By the time they used the second book, "On the Sand" Hunt (1986), it was hoped that they would be more familiar with the task and therefore generate more spontaneous language. Thus, the language produced from the second book was used for the study. With each book the pupils were given time to familiarise themselves with the story and then asked to tell the story in their own words using the pictures as stimulus. In each case the pupils were taped as they told the story so that the use of language could be analysed at a later date.

The errors made in spoken language were recorded under nine criteria which could be classified under three main categories based on Damico (1983) and Baradas' (1993) revised criteria. The criteria were specified to give a clear guide lines to teachers transcribing language scripts. The nine criteria were as follows:

Code mixing errors

- Words a pupils may borrow from the first language when speaking the second language and vice versa

- Local words, part of the Madeira dialect and not European Portuguese

Pragmatic errors

- Linguistic non-fluencies where the flow of dialogue is disrupted by repetitions, pauses over seven seconds and hesitations
- Revisions where a pupil tries to start and restart a sentence eg His dad... her dad... their dad....
- Non specific words eg. She gives the cat something

Syntax errors

- Gender deviations
- Deviations in number
- Errors in the form of the possessive
- Verb errors, including deviations in tense

The three pragmatic categories used by Baradas (1993) were combined in the study as the numbers of errors in each category were small due to the size of the sample used. Again the four criteria used by Baradas to define syntax errors were combined for the same reasons as given above. A code mixing category also used by Baradas was used but later dropped as the pupils in this sample did not appear to use or borrow words from either language. Additional categories, nouns, verbs and adjectives were added in order to compare the range of vocabulary used in each language. However, only two pupils used adjectives and so this category was also dropped from the study.

The seven remaining criteria were collapsed into the two categories of pragmatic and syntax errors. The number of pragmatic and syntax errors was totalled for each pupil and recorded separately and then combined to give the total number of errors made by each pupil. These were then expressed as a percentage of the total number of words uttered by each pupil in each language. The average number of errors made by the whole group in English and then in Portuguese was calculated and standard deviation found.

The number of different nouns and verbs used were analysed in the same way and each expressed as a percentage of the total of the number of words uttered. Again the mean was calculated for the nouns and verbs for the whole group and standard deviation found in both languages.

The data was analysed in a variety of ways, first comparing the mean number of errors for the whole group in English and Portuguese and then comparing the mean number of nouns and verbs used. Next, the percentage of errors made by each pupil in both languages and the range of nouns and verbs was compared. Finally possible correlation's between the number of months in English schools and the percentages of errors made in each language and use of vocabulary were considered.

Results

Errors

The range of total words spoken varies in each

language, the greatest range being in Portuguese. The average number of spoken words in English was 99 and in Portuguese it was 130.

Table I compares the mean percentage of errors in English and Portuguese.

Table I
Mean Percentage of Errors

Errors	English	Portuguese
Pragmatic	18 (5.4)*	13 (7.5)
Syntax	5 (4.8)	1 (1.3)
Total	23 (9.7)	14 (9.0)

*()= ± Standard Deviation

Although more words were spoken in Portuguese, more errors were made in English. When the kind of errors made are analysed, there appear to be more pragmatic than syntax errors made in both languages, however more pragmatic errors are made in English.

Table II gives the percentage of words uttered and errors made by each pupil in both languages. By dividing the errors into two categories, it is possible to compare the kind of errors being made in each language.

Table II
Spoken Language

Pupil	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8	
Months in School	31		16		22		46		13		0.5		0.3		13	
Language	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P
Words	81	153	89	31	149	150	140	188	109	110	65	78	108	255	53	82
Errors	22	18	31	13	23	30	18	9	21	12	11	22	14	6	48	18
Pragmatic	18	17	20	13	20	28	14	8	12	12	11	20	14	5	30	17
Syntax	4	1	11	0	3	2	4	1	9	0	0	2	0	1	18	1

E= English P=Portuguese

It can be seen that the number of pragmatic errors is high in both languages whilst the number of syntax errors is comparatively low. However higher percentages of syntax errors occur only in English. For example, although pupil 5 makes far more errors in English, nearly half of them are syntax errors. No syntax errors are made in Portuguese. Interestingly an

equal percentage of pragmatic errors are made in both languages. Pupil 2 also makes a high number of errors in English but a break down of errors reveals that over half are syntax errors, again no syntax errors are made in Portuguese. The same trend appears in the errors made by pupil 8.

Only pupils 3 and 6 appear to have made pragmatic errors in Portuguese. The least number of pragmatic errors in Portuguese was made by pupil 7 who, at the time of the study, was the most recent arrival from Madeira.

Although there seems to be no apparent linear correlation between English and Portuguese pragmatic errors; there does not seem to be a negative correlation (r2=-0.5), between English and Portuguese syntax errors. The data here suggests that pupils who have spent between 13 to 16 months in school are making more syntax errors in English. The number of syntax errors made by pupils who have been here longer

not show this. Errors in Portuguese might stay the same as it is the main spoken language.

Nouns and Verbs

Table III compares the mean percentage of vocabulary in both languages.

Table III
Mean Percentage of Vocabulary.

Vocabulary	English	Portuguese
Nouns	13 (3.2)*	10 (3.5)
Verbs	7 (3.9)	9 (3.9)
Adjectives	0.5 (0.7)	0.4 (0.8)

*()+ Standard Deviation

A greater variety of nouns was used in English, but a greater variety of verbs used in Portuguese. The percentage of adjectives used was low in both languages.

Table IV compares the percentage of vocabulary used by each pupil in both languages.

Table IV
Vocabulary

Pupil	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8	
Months in School	31		16		22		46		13		0.5		0.3		13	
Language	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P	E	P
Words	81	153	89	31	149	150	140	188	109	110	65	78	108	255	53	82
Nouns	11	5	10	13	13	11	9	7	15	9	14	16	19	8	15	14
Verbs	9	7	14	16	8	9	9	12	8	9	3	3	2	5	2	7
Adjectives	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0

E = English P= Portuguese

Six out of eight pupils used a greater percentage of nouns when retelling the story in English than they did in Portuguese. There appears to be a high negative correlation between the number of nouns and the number of months in school ($r^2 = -0.8$). Thus pupils who have been at the school for three and five months used a greater variety of nouns when talking about the book, in English; whereas a pupil who had been here

for over forty months tended not to use so many different nouns. Pupils appear to use less Portuguese nouns the longer they spent in the English school ($r^2 = -0.6$).

The percentage of verbs used in each language does not appear to vary greatly. There seems to be a positive correlation between the number of English and Portuguese verbs, ($r^2 = 0.5$). Thus pupils who have been in English schools less than twenty months use

fewer verbs. However two of the pupils who have been in school between ten and twenty months have used the widest variety of verbs.

There is a positive linear correlation ($r^2 = 0.5$), between the variety of Portuguese verbs and time in the English school. Pupils who have been in the English primary school less than twenty months seem to use a greater variety of Portuguese verbs. There is a positive correlation between the number of Portuguese and English verbs and English education. A greater variety

of English verbs appear to be used as more months are spent in English schools. However, the length of time spent in English education seems to have little effect on the variety of verbs, in fact it appears more verbs are used the longer time is spent in English education.

English adjectives were used only by pupils who had been in school for sixteen months or more. Perhaps

surprising is the fact that few adjectives were used in Portuguese, even by those who had been in school five months or less. One might argue they were unnecessary to tell the story.

Discussion

Overall more words were spoken in Portuguese than in English and fewer errors were made in Portuguese than in English. This may best be explained by Fishman's notion that the use of language relates very much to the needs of the individual. Portuguese was still the main language used and therefore the pupils are more proficient in speaking Portuguese, even for a school based task. In terms of speaking, English is still the second language and used mostly at school where most input is of a formal class based nature, much of which is context embedded. On the whole results of this study reflect the trend that more errors occur in spoken English suggesting that fluency in Portuguese does not seem to be diminishing.

Although more words were spoken, the quality of the language used and the high number of pragmatic errors may indicate that skills are poorly developed in the first language. It could be that the kind of vocabulary used to talk about the book was not the same as that used on a day to day basis at home. Baradas (1993) suggest that if the words of the task are not everyday words used in the home language then the task in the first language is perceived as being hard. The level of fluency in Portuguese is perhaps adequate for day to day communication but not for the level of descriptive language needed to retell a story. Equally many of the descriptive words in the first language could have been forgotten due to the fact that they are not regularly used on a daily basis.

The high number of pragmatic errors in English indicates that the range of vocabulary and sentence structure is not yet adequate in the second language to retell the story successfully, pupils are having to stop and think hard about the words to use in the new language. This is perhaps expected from children learning a new language and was illustrated by the fact that some were retelling the story using simplistic sentences whilst others were only using short phrases.

What was not anticipated is that many of the children only used short phrases and simplistic sentences to retell the story in Portuguese. The use of pictures in a story book to generate language provides a cognitively demanding task in both languages which requires pupils to pause and think more often before speaking. Such a task may be a good way to support a child at different stages of learning a new language. Using pictures of greater complexity would require a greater understanding of what is happening and may also require the use of specialist language.

The number of syntax errors was small compared to the number of pragmatic errors made in both languages. In this study most syntax errors in English were made by those who had been in school between thirteen and sixteen months. Perhaps few syntax errors were made by pupils who had been at school less than

thirteen months because these children spoke mainly in phrases or single words rather than in full sentences. In fact those making no syntax errors did so because they only used single words to point out what was in the picture rather than describe what was happening. Thus it was not actually possible for them to make any syntax errors. On the other hand, those pupils who had been at school for more than sixteen months seem to be making fewer syntax errors, even although they used more complex sentences in English. Perhaps they were reaching a stage where they have a sufficient grasp of the second language so as not to make so many syntax errors.

The high number of syntax errors in Portuguese perhaps highlights grammatical difficulties which may also become apparent as the second language is learnt and thus could signify a specific learning difficulty and learning a language. However it may also indicate that skills are not sufficiently developed in the first language. Greater use made of tasks embedded in every day contexts such as describing or sequencing pictures based on family life, would enable the second language learner to make greater use of language thus highlighting any difficulties or improvements made in the use of grammar or vocabulary.

The percentage of nouns used in English appears to decline the longer pupils spend in England. This might reflect the initial pattern of learning names of objects before interspersing them with pronouns within a more complex sentence structure. The longer a pupil spends in the English primary school, the variety of Portuguese nouns may diminish because words used infrequently may be forgotten. If only words associated with Portuguese life are spoken, then it is likely the vocabulary in spoken English will become richer whilst the vocabulary in Portuguese becomes limited, (Cummins 1984) and again Fishman in Baker, (1993).

However, the percentage of verbs appears to increase the longer these pupils spend in the English school indicating perhaps that as fluency increases so does the range of vocabulary. This might reflect the normal learning pattern, that having acquired a good range of nouns, an individual will have to constantly acquire and use new vocabulary, particularly verbs, in order to be understood. Chomsky, (1965), suggested that there was a set or universal pattern of learning language, that children acquired a universal grammar which could be used when learning languages. A greater variety of verbs in Portuguese are used when a pupil first arrives but this does not seem to decrease the longer a pupil spends in English education. There seems to be no obvious explanation as to why pupils should use fewer nouns but less few in their first language over a period of time. Many pupils develop skills by first learning the names of objects and then associated verbs such as "playing", "talking", "walking", etc. Later they are able to put these together to make short phrases such as "the boy is playing". This was reflected in the way they used language to retell the story in English. However there was also evidence that fluent Portuguese teachers were using

such simplistic language in their first language, perhaps suggesting they were still in the early stages of learning Portuguese. It could also be that such an open ended task is unfamiliar to them. They may be more accustomed to doing structured exercises from a text book which does not require the use of spoken language. It could also be that as well as being an unfamiliar approach, they were highly anxious about the task and thus resorted to using minimal language to “get it over and done with”.

Although it is not apparent in this study it is possible that as the range of vocabulary and fluency increases, so will use of adjectives. A greater awareness by class teachers that second language learners follow a well developed sequence of language learning, will enable learning to be more effectively matched to stages of language acquisition, possibly resulting in greater efficiency in language learning. Again this can best be achieved by delivering an English curriculum that is context embedded. Second language learners may at first feel threatened by the lack of structure and text books, but are more likely to have a better chance of learning new concepts and a new language at the appropriate level, which will result in greater confidence and a positive attitude to learning.

There are signs that these children are able to make use of two languages, albeit at a low level. The fact that spoken English is still strong reflects its regular use in the local community. However the lack of a wide and rich vocabulary used in the task suggests that spoken Portuguese is not being developed beyond a functional use. Likewise the lack of vocabulary used in the spoken English task suggests that these children are still in the process of developing basic vocabulary in order to communicate in the second language. As skills in English are reinforced in the classroom, there may be a possibility that skills in Portuguese may not develop any more than is necessary for day to day communication at home.

It would appear then, that many of the children arriving from Madeira have poor skills in their first language and this may put them at a disadvantage when learning a second language. Thus, these pupils will need a great deal of support acquiring skills in English. Use of visual material such as books, pictures and practical tasks will encourage these children to use and develop their newly acquired language whilst at the same time integrating them into the class and allowing the teacher to assess progress. Thus a positive attempt to try and reduce high anxiety and low self image as new arrivals adapt to the new school environment, would allow pupils to gain more confidence and become more receptive to learning. Maintaining a positive attitude and a reason for learning could also be strengthened by attempting to involve parents in the school community.

The school has already begun to develop teaching strategies which allow these pupils to achieve and attain within the framework of the National Curriculum. By using teaching methods that adopt the Cummins model Hall (1995), teachers with the support of the English

as an Additional Language (EAL) advisory teacher, have been able to develop activities in all National Curriculum areas enabling pupils to work at their own conceptual level. This has led to the development of a resource bank of such tasks which fit alongside topics and themes planned for each year group. This has enabled bilingual pupils to access the same curriculum as their peers; yet at the same time allowing teachers to make assessment based on pupil's skill and conceptual understanding rather than an ability to follow instructions in a second language. In order for the curriculum to be accessible to bilingual pupils the tasks are context embedded, making use of visual aids, demonstrations, role plays and practical activity, minimising the need to interpret complex instructions in English.

The school has made considerable progress in improving support for bilingual pupils. This in turn has contributed to raising staff levels of self esteem and achievement. A link has been established with a school in Madeira enabling teachers from England to visit and to develop a greater understanding of the Portuguese education system in Madeira, which some of the pupils have experienced before coming to Bournemouth. Portuguese textbooks have been given to the school in order to help support new arrivals from Madeira. The teachers have also become aware of the cultural traditions and festivals which take place in Madeira throughout the year and have been able to incorporate these into curriculum planning back at the school. The employment of a bilingual teacher has helped both teachers and pupils develop strategies to enhance learning in the classroom. Translations of early reading books into Portuguese by older bilingual children have also given more support for younger pupils. There is monitoring of progress in spoken language from when they arrive. If progress is slow, teachers can assess whether there may be an additional learning difficulty.

In order to support learning in English the EAL teacher has worked with class teachers to devise appropriate language games and activities to build vocabulary, language skills and confidence in English. Many of these activities are designed to be carried out by small groups or pairs of pupils, including where possible, monolingual pupils of all abilities. Such an approach to bilingual teaching and learning is hoped to raise not just pupil achievement within the National Curriculum, but also pupil self esteem and an overall awareness that bilingual pupils achieve more when they feel valued and included in the learning process alongside their peers.

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In a developing world society, a good school must participate in the globally oriented learning process that can only acquire stability and durability through the cooperation of young people in thinking and planning. For this reason, in a good school international understanding and peace education should be basic principles serving to guarantee an international perspective, which has to be realized in the overcoming of daily tasks. An essential requirement for peace is to be at peace with oneself and with nature, the more primitive part of the world of life. Therefore peace education always also comprises responsibility for the environment, which needs to be practised in the form of environmental education within the framework of peace policy.

For the good school, no other task is as important as the awakening of international understanding, together with a propensity, readiness, and willingness for peace that can prove themselves in the life of the school and that of the community.

Hermann Rohrs, 'A "Good School" in the Progressive Sense', in **Education**, Vol 57, p 78.

Education is a biannual collection of recent German contributions to the field of Educational Research.

What is an Internationally-minded School?

Notes on a recent survey

Esther Lucas

In an attempt to find out what makes an 'internationally-minded' school, I carried out a survey in 1998 among schools that seemed to merit this name.

I first came across the term when I attended a convention of the Conference of Internationally-minded Schools in England in the early sixties. Shortly afterwards, this organization amalgamated with the International Schools Association, then based in Geneva.

Paragraph 1 of Article XIV of the ISA Statutes caters for two categories of schools: A - Internationally-minded (excluding international schools) and B - International Schools. Both are covered by the same criteria for membership. "The school should provide an education which should be directed to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. One of the aims should be to promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all people of all nations". The ISA has an ongoing Pilot Project with a similar philosophy spelt out to include the quality of human beings, educational opportunities for all. Human unity through diversity, responsibility, peaceful conflict resolution and the maintenance of a sustainable future.

The UNESCO Associated Schools Project, a far larger world wide organization founded in 1953, has a profile developed on its 40th Anniversary, which includes the following points, among others:

- Contributing in an active manner to the aims and principles of UNESCO.
- Developing the concept of intercultural learning
- Ensuring communication links between schools
- Learning to live together

This to be achieved through education for peace, human rights, democracy and tolerance, protection and conservation of the environment and of the world heritage and non-violent conflict resolution.

This survey covers 34 schools in 20 countries: Australia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Canada (2), Chile, China, Denmark (2), Finland (8), Germany (3), Israel (2), Jordan, Latvia, Norway, Russia, Senegal, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, UK (2) and the USA. The schools were approached through my contacts with international educational organizations.

Questionnaires, and in some cases also interviews, were used to elicit information on the following items:

- School population
- Affiliation to international or regional bodies
- Twinning
- School exchanges other than twinning
- Projects such as a) democracy and tolerance,

b) peace education, c) intercultural understanding, d) the environment, e) the UN.

- The credo of the school

School population: None of the schools surveyed has the kind of international population that is the norm in international schools. Twenty percent of the schools have between 5 and 10 percent foreign students. The Australian school has South East Asians; a German school has 31 nationalities; a Finnish school has 10% Russians and Estonians; a UK school has 8% students from Malaysia, Korea, Thailand, and two Chinese teachers. One Canadian schools has 15% foreign teachers; a Danish and a German school have Arab teachers. Virtually all the schools are national schools. Some are private. Many have exchange students and teachers who are there for short periods.

Affiliations: There is a wide range of affiliations among "internationally-minded" schools. The following are the main organizations to which internationally-minded schools belong.

Associated schools Project of UNESCO: Of the schools surveyed, 85% (in Belarus, Bulgaria, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Israel and Switzerland) belong to the UNESCO Project. There are around 2,000 schools in the Project but few international schools are members, since membership usually depends on the recommendation of a National Commission of UNESCO.

International Schools Association: Eight ISA schools including Pilot Project schools (in Australia, Canada, Germany, Jordan, Russia and USA) responded to the survey. ISA has about 85 member schools and the Pilot Project has around 26.

Life-Link: Four schools (in Bulgaria, Germany and the UK) belong to Life-Link, a school friendship organization based in Sweden. Life-Link has contacts with more than 50 countries and about 85 coordinators worldwide.

UNICEF, Ed-Dev (Education for Development): Four schools (in Bulgaria, Germany, Israel and the UK) are active in the Ed-Dev section of UNICEF which has many participating schools in the Voices of Youth internet programme.

International Debating: Four schools in Belarus, Israel, Latvia and South Africa, belong to the International Debating organization that has member schools all over the world. Debates are held periodically in different countries with several nationalities taking part at each session.

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Amnesty International: The school in Senegal works for Amnesty International. Individual students in different countries belong but this is the only school working for its local branch.

GAP Programme: I found two schools, one in England and one in China involved in this programme which prepared students to volunteer abroad when they leave school.

International Baccalaureate: Although not always stated, several of the schools surveyed offer the International Baccalaureate.

Regional Organizations: Several schools belong to organisations such as Near East Schools Association, Innovative Schools, Association of Modern Experimental Schools, Boys School Coalition, and other specialized groups. Some schools in Europe are affiliated to regional programmes such as the Comenius Action carried out by the European Federation of Intercultural Learning, or the Baltic Sea or Blue Danube River UNESCO projects.

Twinning: Practically every school in the survey is twinned with one or more schools in another country. Twinning appears to be one of the most significant characteristics of an “internationally-minded” school. Twinning occasionally takes place with an international school but most often with another national school. A school in Germany has been twinned with a school in Prague for 30 years. Many schools have been twinned for 12 or 15 years. Here are some examples: Australia with Japan; Belarus with Germany, the UK and USA; Bulgaria with Russia, Holland and Romania; Canada with Italy and France; Chile with UNIS, the UK and Argentina.; China is planning twinning with Germany; Denmark (2 schools) with Estonia, Finland, Iceland and Germany; Finland (8 schools) with Estonia, Lithuania, Kenya, Russia, France, Germany, Hungary, Zimbabwe, Denmark, Sweden, Italy, Poland, Switzerland, France and the UK; Germany (3 schools) with Bolivia, China, the Czech Republic, Ghana, France, Israel, the UK, and UNIS; Israel (2 schools) with Germany and Palestine; Latvia with USA; Russia with Holland; Senegal with France; South Africa with Australia (3 schools) and Scotland; Sweden with France and Finland; Switzerland with Romania and the Czech Republic; The UK (3 schools) with Italy, France, Germany, Spain and the International School Geneva.

Exchanges other than twinning: Besides twinning there are a great number of other exchanges. Many schools have exchange students. Bulgaria has students from Germany, Austria, Croatia, South Africa, the UK and USA. Russia has students from the USA and is ready to cooperate further in pupil and teacher exchanges. Sweden has exchanges with Poland and Norway, while South Africa has them with

France, Switzerland and USA. The three schools in the UK have exchanges with Germany, the Czech Republic, Poland, Israel, USA, France and Holland. The school in the USA is involved in student exchanges through the Pilot Project. Other links take place via E-mail and the internet in Bulgaria, Chile, Finland and Israel. From talking to teachers, it appears there are many more such links in the schools but they are not mentioned in the questionnaires.

Many school organize educational visits abroad. A Canadian school organizes visits to New York, Washington, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. Several schools send their students to international conferences. In Finland, a school sends its choirs and orchestras on tours abroad, and entertains visiting choirs. A German school organizes study tours to the UN in New York as well as trips to France, Turkey, Israel, Auschwitz and Krakau, and an Indian journey under the auspices of the UNESCO World Heritage. An Israeli school sends students to Columbus, Ohio as their cities are twinned and to Tucson, Arizona through the American Israel Friendship League. A school in the UK arranges visits to India where students work with the local population. The USA school has visited China.

Projects: “Internationally-minded” schools are engaged in a vast and varied range of subjects, many of them similar to those in international schools. About 50% of the schools surveyed are involved in **Democracy** and **Tolerance** projects, and the same percentage in **Peace Education**. Somewhat more schools have **Intercultural Understanding** projects, while **Protection of the Environment** is dealt with by 75% of the schools. About 30% have projects about the **UN**, and a smaller number deal specifically with **Human Rights**. At the same time Sports, Moral Education, Biotechnology and School Camps are also mentioned.

The following projects are described in some detail in the survey: The Bulgarian school has projects on the Blue Danube River, Culture of Peace, My Street, My river (internet) and the Individual in Society. Bulgaria works with other Danubian countries and students are preparing a textbook called river Empathy. They are in touch with the Baltic Sea Project and the South-East Mediterranean Project and the Caribbean Project.

Schools such as those in Canada and Chile are involved in projects through the International Baccalaureate. The school in China has Science and Environment clubs and teachers are encouraged to set up more clubs.

A Danish state school has interdisciplinary teaching and experimental work.

A Finnish teacher coordinates the European Comenius Action Project testing teaching materials in English and psychology.

The same Finnish school belongs to a young people's environmental movement and the whole school is committed to sustainable development. In a teacher training school in Finland, projects are a part of the courses. Students at **Finnish** ASP schools have the opportunity of gaining a certificate for Global Citizenship in a maturity test.

A German school puts out "INFO" publications for teachers and students, describing visits, exchanges, sports, music and seminars on topics such as People and their Rights in One World, or Youth and Racism. They also produce an Intercultural Calendar. Another German school is involved in Ecological Humanism, with the school as an example.

An Israeli school has started a biotechnology project connected with UNESCO's Oceania 1998, as well as an industry project with a school in the USA supported by the Ministry of Trade and Industry. Another Israeli school has an internet project with Arab schools in Israel and Palestine funded by the International Federation of University Women.

A Norwegian school organizes an "International Week" annually together with student organizations all over Norway.

The Latvian school is involved in the European Youth Parliament.

The school in Russia has contacts with educators in Bulgaria, Holland, Germany and the USA and proposes a large number of joint projects including ones on Conflict, Equal Rights and Street Children.

The school in South Africa has UN debates, a wildlife club, a bird club, and Outward Bound camps.

Students in the Swedish school interview sportsmen in a foreign language (French).

The school in Switzerland takes part annually in the Students' United Nations in Geneva (started originally by the Geneva International School). Students provide their own interpreting.

A UK school circulates a leaflet called "IDEAS" eliciting ideas for their International Day of Environmental Action and Service. They sent students to the Life-Link Conference in 1998. Another UK school develops school camps as a tool for learning about the UN. Students' United Nations are also organized from time to time by schools in the UK.

The head of the US school fully intends to have a public school become an "internationally-minded" school.

School "Credos": There are considerable differences in what schools deem to be their "credos". Those in the ISA Pilot Project have statements that include many aspects of their educational ethos. Some schools just have

school mottoes sometimes of only one or two words. In the following examples I have extracted specific points and have thus not necessarily quoted whole credos.

Five schools have credos that include religious beliefs. The school in Chile mentions Judeo-Christian values as part of their mission statement. A Finnish school states that it is Evangelical Lutheran. The school in Jordan says its education is firmly rooted in Arab Islamic heritage and culture, while both Christian and Moslem religions are taught. The Senegal school follows the principles of the holy man Oumar Tal, though there is no specific religious instruction. A school in the UK has the motto "God Grant Grace" because it is the motto of the governing body, the Grocers' Company. Another UK school states that it is a multicultural Christian school.

Most schools refer to **democracy, human rights and international understanding** in their credos. The following are some examples:

Australia:	... recognizing and understanding rights of people
Belarus:	create a bridge of understanding and mutual respect among nations and thus promote peace
Canada:	integrate international perspectives into everyday reality
Chile:	... to contribute to the development of a democratic society
Finland:	one school has Tolerance, another International Understanding
Germany:	the three schools have - To learn to respect rights - tolerance - international contact
Israel:	one school says - democracy for all, the other - respecting the rights of every individual
Jordan:	appreciation of our own and other cultures, embracing tolerance and mutual respect
Norway:	respect for other people
Switzerland:	promotion of tolerance and international understanding
USA:	accept diverse positive cultural values

The personal development of the student forms part of many credos.

Australia:	developing potential
China:	first of all to be a PERSON, to be interested in studying and know where their interests are
Denmark:	active and responsible students

Israel:	to develop pupils' abilities in as many fields as possible
Norway:	to know oneself
Russia:	development of creative abilities and reflective thinking
USA:	to enable students to reach their potential ... continue development as a whole person, help raise personal expectations

Two schools include service in their credos, for example:

Australia:	master requirements of society - service
Israel:	involvement in the community

Two schools refer specifically to the environment:

Denmark:	environmental attitude - a holistic view
Germany:	ecological humanism, love of nature

Some unclassified credos include:

Canada:	Nous Batissons un monde
Finland:	one school has - Cultural Heritage, another - Liberalism
Latvia:	We are No. 1
South Africa:	the school motto is "One and All". Statement of strategic intent is "South Africa School making a world of difference"
Sweden:	to give a lot of time and love to the pupils and yet show them where "the limit" is. "Karlek, Tid och Grahster"

The school population is basically **national** but there may be a small percentage of foreign students and/or teachers. (An international school would not use the word "foreign").

Virtually all internationally-minded schools are **affiliated to international or regional organizations** which encourage interest and involvement in global or community issues.

Twinning is one of the most significant characteristics of an internationally-minded school. A school may be twinned with several other schools. Contacts may be maintained for many years.

Other activities include exchange **students and teachers**, often in connection with foreign language learning. There are contacts through **E-mail and internet**, and various educational visits abroad.

Internationally-minded schools are involved in a vast number of **projects** dealing with many international and humanitarian problems. The projects are often ongoing and involve whole school participation. The heads of the schools are always involved.

Almost all schools have **credos**, ranging from a short motto to a longer mission statement. Credos refer to all aspects of school life. In internationally-minded schools the emphasis is most often on international understanding.

These conclusions are limited to the small survey undertaken. A glance at the activities of internationally-minded school listed by the Associated Schools Project of UNESCO or by Life-Link for instance, will show just how many more such commitments there are in schools the world over. These reports, as well as those quoted, are most heartening.

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Conclusion

So what is an internationally-minded school?

It is not an **international school**, though it may have many factors in common with international schools.

It may be a **state or municipal school**, a private school, a day or boarding school.

World Organization for Early Childhood Education The History of OMEP, 1959-1971

The second volume of the History of OMEP, 1959-1971 was launched at the 50th Anniversary World Conference in Copenhagen last August. The project has involved a good deal of research and international collaboration. Every National Committee of OMEP (now numbering 60+) received a free copy and Margaret Roberts is sending a copy to those not presented.

She is happy to donate a copy to College Libraries providing education or related courses otherwise copies can be obtained from the co-editor:

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‘Learning for All’ versus ‘Letters for The Few’?: Some Thoughts Towards a Positive Academic Future

Andrew Marks

Introduction

It occurs to this particular observer that the current controversies regarding the future of higher education are nothing new. Tony Blair’s much quoted, and supposedly rather radical, Party Conference exhortation of two years ago of his priorities as being “education, education, education” appear very similar to those of Lenin (oh the *irony!*) in *Better Fewer, But Better* where renovation of the state apparatus would only be achieved if all people set out “first, to learn, second to learn and third, to learn” (Lenin, 1923, 239). They are the very same debates that have been going on in one form or another for over a century. Indeed, with the vapidness of the prevailing debates in academic circles, the current state of the sector should surprise no-one.

Education or Training?

This is certainly not a new question. One can trace the origins of the debate going back as far as the writings of Bertrand Russell and William Morris on one side of the debate, and Herbert Spencer on the other. What is, and always it would seem has been, under consideration here is the issue of ends and means. Is higher education simply a means to gain the necessary training for a particular career, or is it an end in itself? Certainly Bertrand Russell considered it to be the latter, claiming that learning should be unsullied by thoughts of utility and as much a part of the *joie de vivre* as drinking or lovemaking (Russell, 1941, p81). Consider also the utopian ideas of Morris regarding ‘due’ and ‘liberal’ education:

At present all education is directed towards the end of fitting people to take their places in the hierarchy of commerce - these as masters, those as workmen. The education of the masters is more ornamental than that of the workmen, but it is commercial still; and even at the ancient universities learning is but little regarded, unless it can in the long run be made to pay. Due education is a totally different thing from this, and concerns itself in finding out what different people are fit for, and helping them along the road which they are inclined to take. (Morris, 1885, p101)

In other words, Morris wanted to see an education system which brought out pre-existing talents, rather

than trying to effect the damaging trick of forcing square pegs into round holes. Elsewhere, Morris has this to say:

And you must not say that every English child is educated now; that sort of education will not answer my claim, though I cheerfully admit that it is something: something, and yet after all only class education. What I claim is Liberal education; opportunity, that is, to have my share of the knowledge that there is in the world according to my capacity or bent of mind, historical or scientific; and also to have my share of skill at hand which is about in the world, either in the industrial handicrafts or in the fine arts ... I claim to be taught, if I can be taught, more than one craft to exercise for the benefit of the community. (Morris, 1887, p149-150)

Certainly Morris saw no dichotomy between education and training, as the above quote testifies, so why is such a dichotomy still even now so prevalent in educational debates? This does seem to be a particularly British (and indeed, we could further hazard, particularly *English*) problem. Only in Britain/England does it seem to be the case that the purely ‘intellectual’ is valued and the purely ‘practical’ is deemed secondary (‘vocational’ probably falls some way between the two). Surely this can be the only explanation for why the polytechnics were, in 1992, granted Charter. What is there about the term ‘polytechnic’ which inherently implied inferiority to ‘university’? It can only be the implied practicalism of the terminology in the case of the former institution. George Walden (1997, p185-6) makes it clear that he subscribes to this particular prejudice ¹:

A thing is itself. A polytechnic is not a university. Whatever escutcheon you nail over the entrance, however immaculate the lawn which surrounds it, however devious the circumlocutions we resort to, in the minds of millions of people, not least its own students, a polytechnic it will remain.

However, he also makes the valuable point that it is only here in the U.K. that practicalist terminology is deemed to be the poor relation.

¹ Above all, Walden is a meritocrat, so whilst he is anti-egalitarian and noticeably uncomfortable with the idea of polytechnics aspiring to a status which (he feels) they have not earned, he would no doubt be equally uncomfortable with Oxbridge graduates assuming superiority over other graduates.

... the Massachusetts Institute of Technology does not lose any sleep over not being a university to itself, nor does the fact that a first rate French engineer studied at the prestigious Ecole des Ponts et Chaussees in France cloud his career. Our polytechnics ... should have felt sufficient confidence in themselves and their achievements not to worry about it either.

Perhaps the clue to the problem lies in the very language used by Morris himself - he refers above to the 'ornamental' education of the 'masters' which is nevertheless expected to 'pay'. Clearly, in reference to the ancient universities it is not the education itself which is being made to pay: it is not the degree titles 'B.A.' or 'M.A.' which are important here, but the '(Oxon)' or '(Cantab)' suffixes. Bertrand Russell (1926, p195) complained that the 'idle rich' who 'infest the older universities' derive little or no academic benefit from it. The 'masters' do not need an education as such, merely evidence of elite membership - and in this case an Oxbridge education is not so very different from a secret handshake in its semiological content. Despite the regular protestations from these institutions that they are, in fact, offering the very best that is available, their arguments are often self-serving and not entirely convincing: Ellis (1994, p5) describes what Oxbridge offers as a "residential course in leadership", no more and no less. Elsewhere (ibid, p26) Ellis highlights what he sees as the ingrained arrogance of the Oxbridge system ²:

Intelligence is obviously required if you are to be any good at it, but at the end it is, for all but the genuinely committed, intellectual sleight of hand - a party trick for those who see life as a party.

The 'workmen', to use Morris' terminology, need only be taught what they are going to use in day to day life. Possibly this could mean little more than basic literacy and numeracy. This is not to imply that the working class are simply excluded from higher education without some kind of voluntary cultural processes occurring; manifestly at least part of the problem is that working class people (especially males) reject the educational process themselves (see, for example, Willis, 1977), although how far this is the result of an undervaluing of education and how far this is mere bravado after failure is open to debate (Marks and Nash, 1998).

On the other side of this debate of course is the purely vocationalist argument: as far back as the last

century this debate was raging - and continues to do so, it would seem. Herbert Spenser (1854, p14) derided what he saw as 'ornamental' knowledge - that which has no practical application - seeing only the purely 'scientific' as being of value ³.

Whilst anxious that their sons should be well up in the superstitions of two thousand years ago, they care not that they should be taught anything about the structure and functions of their own bodies - nay, even wish them not to be so taught. So overwhelming is the influence of established routine! So terribly in our education does the *ornamental* over-ride the *useful* (emphases added) ⁴

Somewhere in the middle of these strange British prejudices have existed (and still exist) the majority of British higher education institutions and their students. What is to become of them? Hutton (1995, p216) has noted with unconcealed dismay how universities in Britain have become nothing more than "factories for the production of degree holders", producing knowledge which can be deemed useful (for 'useful' read 'saleable') in the labour market. Surely such 'econometric' evaluation of education is not healthy, either for students themselves or for the future of learning and the seats of learning?

Funding

The current obsession with the cost-effectiveness of higher education is certainly nothing new. It merely appears new because for the majority of us, living memory does not extend to the days prior to the offering of universal grants to all for higher education - and certainly living memory, in the late 1990s can scarcely reach back to very far before the beginnings of the welfare state. Dearing, Kennedy et al are merely telling a 1990s audience precisely what a 1930s audience, for example, would have known anyway - that education *costs*, and someone has to pay for it.

This is not to imply agreement with present government policy of charging fees for university entrance but to acknowledge that the money has to come from somewhere. If we are to have a mass higher education sector rather than an elite one, then more places even than we already have need to be made available, and more money needs to be found to pay for these. The problem is to find a way for this to be done which will not strike at vulnerable student groups - and also to judge where, in the wider spectrum of educational funding, priorities should lie. The argument

² It is worth noting that Oxford is slipping down the research league tables (see, for example The Guardian, 30/4/98) being overtaken by Imperial College London, and with relatively new institutions such as Warwick and York catching up fast

³ This is somewhat ironic given that Herbert Spenser is one of the most important historical figures in the social sciences. This view does, however, fit well with the utilitarian/rational view of science and learning as alternatives to the religious world view (to which the quote refers) was a central focus. Hence, the historical perspective of social science as a kin to a natural science was, in its days, a radical position, placing the 'liberal' and 'rational' above the religious.

⁴ Interestingly enough, Melanie Phillips (1996) occupies much the same political position, arguing that the liberal tradition is one of scepticism and empiricism, and using this approach to justify her own (somewhat idiosyncratic) education views.

of the present government appears to be that whilst fees may (or may not) be regrettable, they are, in conjunction with a fairer method of repayment, probably preferable to the other options available, i.e. 'top-up' fees levied by individual institutions⁵, or the rise in general taxation needed to continue with current levels. The argument that other aspects of educational funding may have a more appropriate and genuine claim on expenditure (see, for example, Parker and Courtney, 1996) may also need to be considered.

My own research is concerned with mature students, a group who are, in economic terms, extremely insecure in an increasingly financially prohibitive sector. These are the people who have the most to offer the universities in terms of life experience and effective contributions to (and use of) tutorial times, but these are the very people who are likely to be squeezed out of the sector by plans for what amounts to the charging of admission. If these charges are off-putting to 18 year olds, how much more off putting will they be to 28, 38 or 48 year olds?

How then could the money be found for the increasing numbers wanting to enter higher education without frightening away vulnerable groups? Is there a way of charging for an education whilst providing an effective safety net for those who need it? I should like to make one, admittedly controversial, suggestion: charges for a university education could be made performance related. Thus, a person who graduates with a First Class honours degree would pay the least, and someone with merely a pass degree would pay the most⁶.

Clearly, there would have to be consideration given for illness and infirmity etc., but on the whole this should provide some degree of protection to the disadvantaged groups. There is ample evidence to suggest that mature students work far harder than their traditional age peers (see Woodley, 1984; Lucas and Ward, 1985; Phillips, 1986; Graham 1991; Maynard 1992) and all of the traditional age students (that is to say, the 18 to 21 year olds) may (at *last*) be persuaded to value higher education as a learning experience, as opposed to an alcohol blurred rite of passage from adolescence into adulthood. Indeed, if learning is a secondary consideration to undergraduates compared with the dizzy social whirl that university life can be, then there is little moral justification for increasing public funding. In this way, education should become an *intellectually* elitist (as opposed to financial) exercise.

Of course, it will be necessary to consider that some of these disadvantaged groups (notably mature students once again) will have less confidence than traditional

students. Bearing this in mind, perhaps a rethinking of some of the more damaging 'competitive' aspects of the teaching and learning process in higher education is due. De Wolfe (1989, p50) for example, offers a 'feminist' alternative, where academic work is seen and practised as a *collaborative* rather than competitive venture (see also Karach, 1992). Certainly, such an approach could only serve to benefit those who whilst they have *ability* may not have the self confidence to use it. Similarly, collaborative learning would avoid the psychological crushing of those with low self-confidence who gain a lower mark than their peers.

Similarly, alternative modes of entry to university need to be taken more similarly, as A levels are not necessarily a good indicator of ability, and the A level hegemony which is maintained regarding entry to higher education continues to give disproportionate benefit to the traditional student. Indeed, in theory, it should be easier for this rethinking to occur in the U.K. than in other developed countries who have nonetheless moved successfully from 'elite' to 'mass' participation: Pritchard (1990, p123-4) points out that in (former) West Germany regulations are tightly enforced, and university entrants must hold the *Fachhochschulreife* (upper technical school leaving certificate) or the *Arbitur* (grammar school leaving certificate) whereas in the U.K. it is only tradition which dictates that university entrants need any qualifications at all. Perhaps it is time to re-evaluate such traditions and give greater consideration to the unqualified - or more to the point the *unconventionally* qualified - learner.

Again, much has been made of the government's proposed 'University for Industry', but an ongoing worry is that it will suffer the same pitfall as a great deal of adult education, namely, that it will simply offer stop-gap, short-term learning designed to fill the myopic requirements of the labour market⁷. This is of course not to say that the needs of the labour market should be ignored, far from it, it is simply to suggest that it is often better to consider the long term needs of the labour market - by offering a meaningful education to adult learners rather than merely offering them the type of basic literacy and numeracy courses (often entirely 'remedial' in content) which have traditionally been associated with the 'adult education' label (see Fieldhouse and Associates, 1996).

Back to The Future?

Clearly the days of a free British higher education are now gone. What needs to be done now is for academics and students alike to reflect on what exactly a 'university education' is there for. As I have tried to show throughout this short paper, these are highly

⁵ This would create the dystopian situation whereby high status institutions could charge large fees because people would be prepared to pay for such an education, whereas lower status institutions would not. Hence higher status institutions would prosper economically, engineering a 'devil take the hindmost' scenario of university funding, and similarly only the children of the rich could afford to attend the high status, well funded institutions. Neither of these possibilities should be welcomed.

⁷ Indeed, one could reasonably ask how far this enterprise is likely to resemble a 'university' at all, if this is the only type of learning that will be on offer. However, this is another argument entirely.

current problems, but they are by no means new. Are we to go back to the bad old system whereby only the rich elite (as opposed to the *intellectual* elite) can enter higher education?

Admittedly, there are now far more people in higher education than at any other time in history, but we should not allow self-congratulation, for this is a false image: we have never before *needed* as many highly educated people as we, as a society, do now. Social and demographic structures are more unstable than ever before. Our manufacturing base is, if not dead, then certainly moribund. The old traditional working class certainties of mining, steel-working and ship building are all but gone, and such jobs as are available are in the white collar, service economies, where 'flexibility of specialisation' is the order of the day: Longworth and Davies (1996, pp61-63) have suggested that this need for 'flexibility' is the result of the built in and ongoing obsolescence of technology as it develops. So too is the built in redundancy of the knowledge accompanying such technologies (see also Brown and Crompton, 1994). Hence, everybody needs to be 'flexible' to survive, and hence we all need as much education as we can possibly get.

Conclusions

Essentially, there are four points raised within this paper:

(i) Education should be an end in itself and not purely vocational or tied to labour market requirements.

(ii) Education is meritocratic, not egalitarian, and admissions policies should reflect this by taking the best applicants, which may not be the traditional middle class 18 year olds, but may in fact be older students, working class students etc. Furthermore, there has to be a better way of assessing 'merit' than A levels, which skew admissions toward the aforementioned middle class 18 year olds.

(iii) Mature students, whilst often displaying greater merit, may be disproportionately affected by the proposals to charge fees on entry, thus some form of financial 'safety net' for such students needs to be considered.

(iv) A solution to the above point would be to introduce fee payments based upon personal attainment - a market led solution, based on performance-related pay introduced already into the commercial and, to a lesser extent, the public sector.

Universities must not become, once again, mere training grounds for the professions (though that role must remain intact⁸) but must instead be the disseminators of learning to all. Crucially also the universities must also pass on the ability to think critically and evaluate complex issues and topics

successfully (which is surely the whole purpose of academic training anyway). We must not go 'back to the future' and allow academia to become a haven for the idle-young-rich with time on their hands. Higher education must offer students the chance to develop clarity of thought - not merely as the most important skill for survival in the labour market of the next millennium, but as an end in itself. I wholeheartedly agree with Russell that learning should be a joyful experience, and should be valued for its own sake. A degree should never be prized over an education.

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⁸ It is crucial, not merely within traditions of English liberal, rationalistic thought but also relevant in a practical sense that boundaries between 'work' and 'non-work' become blurred. Society is becoming increasingly complex and fragmented, and a 'postmodern' society demands flexibility and general bodies of applicable knowledge. Ultimately, whilst higher education must continue to offer what could be deemed 'vocational', it must also fulfil a wider social function as 'educator'. In this way, perhaps also the boundaries between 'education', 'training' and 'leisure' may also become blurred.

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A good school, in the view of progressive education, forms a transitional society; its task is, corresponding to the degree of maturity of the pupils, to pave the way for the transition to social life. To this end, it attempts to establish itself as an educationally organised region of social life, in which democracy can be practised in advance, under educational control. Here is to be found the more profound meaning of school gardens, workshops, experimental rooms and school assemblies, such as are to be found in almost all models of progressive education, and which are designed to ensure an educational 'advance version' of social life. In Dewey's view, this is the constituting of an "embryonic community life", social life at a stage of unfolding - an idea to which Kerschensteiner, with his model of a mutual influence of the a

Arbeitsschule and education to citizenship under the influence of Dewey, comes very close.

*Hermann Rohrs, 'A "Good School" in the Progressive Sense' in **Education** vol 57, pp60-61*

***Education** is a biannual collection of recent German contributions to the field of Educational Research.*

To earn the sobriquet of the good school, therefore, requires permanent self-criticism, self-checking, and the will to further development, if this claim is to be realized on a lasting basis.

For this reason, researches into the theoretical aspects of school and teaching should be a necessary component of a good school; only in this way can the frequently quite subjective aspirations be objectivised. However, corresponding studies must not be allowed to burden school life, but rather - as with the Hawthorne effect - should give teachers and pupils a higher degree of awareness of their activities. Pupils of the good school, who are accustomed to educational reflection, show remarkable understanding in this context; they are able to assist any study decisively when they are properly included in it, because they are much better acquainted than the teachers with the inner structure of the school and its network of effects.

*Hermann Rohrs, 'A "Good School" in the Progressive Sense' in **Education**, vol 57, pp 77-78*

***Education** is a biannual collection of recent German contributions to the field of Educational Research.*

World Studies Trust Pilot Project

Sneh Shah

“If we had realised its success, we would have planned in more detail.” (Teacher)

Background

Currently, teacher mentors in Britain are given little or no training or encouragement in supporting student teachers to apply cross-curricular approaches during school-based experiences. This makes it difficult to provide new or serving teachers with knowledge about World Studies/Development Education (WS/DE). The World Studies Trust (WST) has planned a three year Mentoring Project which intends to overcome this barrier by working with higher education institutions (HEIs) on mentor training programmes. It aims to work with teacher educators in Higher Education Institution(HEIs), teacher mentors in schools and student teachers in both the HEI and during their mentor supported school experiences.

The project aims to :

- Encourage and enable teacher mentors and teacher educators (in both primary and secondary education) to develop good World Studies/ Development Education practice in school-based initial teacher education (ITE)
- Educate young people in the UK so as to:
 - enable them to develop an understanding of global issues in particular with reference to the relationship between North and South (Third World) and
 - enable them to see their own role as active citizens in working to make a better world
- Enable, during their ITE, student teachers to teach World Studies in general and development issues in particular.

In general, it will:

- Develop a network of teacher mentors and teacher educators throughout England, Wales and later Scotland who are committed to, and experienced in, training student teachers to teach World Studies in general and development issues in particular.
- Influence future educational policy concerning the nature of the curricula of the three countries and the training of teachers for those curricula so as to ensure formalisation of a World Studies/ Development Education component in the new curriculum, for the year 2,000.

Pilot Project

The pilot Project was a twelve month trial run involving four HEIs, undertaken in 1997-8. It focused on the work of four HEIs with primary student teachers, their teacher mentors and teacher educators. Ten students were identified from each institution. The

aim was to reach ten schools for each HEI. The Project consisted of a one day training for the mentors, with the students being present, payment for teacher supply cover for the mentor training, planning teaching of World Studies/Development Education with the students, attending the evaluation at the HEI and the purchase of some teaching resources using funds from the Project. The HEIs were in different parts of the country, encompassing an interesting range of arrangements for mentoring, and diverse geographical, cultural and socio-economic backgrounds

Project Evaluation

The Project Evaluator was asked to produce a report which was to provide the World Studies Trust with answers to a number of questions concerning the financial and practical viability of its plans, and to indicate good practice which could be implemented in the full project from year one.

Methods Used

Visits to the schools in each region were not possible given the amount of time and resources made available. Instead the students and mentors were interviewed by the evaluator. The students and mentors completed a questionnaire and the students were in addition asked to keep a log.

There has been no planned evaluation of the trainers. It was however, felt that a key area of involvement was that of the HEIs and much had depended on the individual trainers and how they had jointly attempted to devise the training for mentors and subsequently support the Project. The trainers were either interviewed or were given a questionnaire.

The overall aims of the Project and the questions expected to be addressed by the evaluator were many and broad. It was decided in this situation as many open-ended questions as possible would give the evaluator the opportunity to ascertain the possible interaction of the widest range of factors.

Data was collected as follows:

- a. Information sheet to be completed by mentors and students on training day.
- b. Questionnaire to mentors at the beginning of the training day.
- c. Questionnaire to mentors at the end of the training day.
- d. Questionnaire to students at the beginning of the training day.

- e. Questionnaire to students at the end of the training day.
- f. Weekly log to be filled in by the students during their school experience.
- g. Questionnaire for mentors to be completed for the interview day.
- h. Questionnaire for students to be completed for the interview day.
- i. Interviews with students.
- j. Interviews with class teachers/mentors.
- k. Interviews/questionnaires to trainers.
- l. Observation/participation in planning and training days.

Key Points in the Evaluation Report

The Project was generally well organised although limited resources prevented more planning of the Project following the training of the mentors, an assessment of children's learning and a follow up with students after their placements. The Project was able to achieve a great deal mainly because of the commitment of the HEI tutors. It was clearly the commitment of the HEI tutors that enabled the training to be planned and delivered, and inspired students and teachers.

Nurturing of World Studies/Development Education

The Project has been a very important development in the context of nurturing World Studies and Development Education. The part played by the World Studies Trust and their funders over the last five years or so, needs to be acknowledged. The Pilot Project has given a great boost to World Studies and Development Education in a number of geographical areas. It has produced around 30 or 40 individuals qualifying as teachers anytime between April 1998 and April 2000 who are now highly committed to these themes. They have also started going through a period of very definite personal development which will have its impact on them as individual practitioners, on their colleagues and school communities. Two examples can be cited here. One student took the lead in developing her school's policy on global citizenship.

Another excellent example of good practice came from the students in a very small rural school where the focus of the children's lives would normally be farming and the local community. The student took the lead in organising the week which clearly demonstrated the very global context of the very small rural school.

Many practising teachers have for the first time started thinking about these dimensions in their

teaching. Those individual teachers and schools who were already committed have been further inspired and supported to make long term changes.

General teacher awareness of these issues

Based on the experience of the small number of students and school mentors for the four HEIs, it is clear that there is currently limited knowledge of World Studies less so of Development Education. Clarity of the meaning of the terms and awareness of the implications for classroom practice are generally missing. Unless there was some planned commitment or teacher experience from having travelled abroad, the work done by the aid agencies and organisations concerned with these issues, have failed to reach a large number of schools.

Children's learning

Where the students were able to do some teaching related to the World Studies, children benefited in a number of different ways, for example:

- Young children were more aware with obvious limitations because of their age and the methods used (e.g. stories)
- One student reported as follows:

6-7 year olds were able to express emotions better than expected. Highlighted very stereotypical view points. Very interested about other people and their things. Still at initial stages of PSE, recognising similarities and differences between cultures.

- There were specific results for culturally diverse classrooms. In some cases the results were positive as the Project was used to affirm the children's multi-cultural roots. One student's comments were:

Because of the cultural diversity within the class, children are already aware of countries overseas. They enjoy and respond well to learning about other countries and their way of life.

- The children enjoyed the activities because the teaching methods were often interactive. Activities encouraged problem solving and co-operation.
- Where the content was appropriate for instance, the life of Gandhi, the children did become more aware of political and religious developments.
- They did become aware of the difference in life style between rich and poor people within the Caribbean.
- Some children were surprised that the parents in the story 'The Hunter' were still saying the same things as parents in their country would say.

- The Project was not long enough for students to have long term effect on views of the children. For instance, one student's comments were that it encouraged a sense of self and community but needs a lot of time spending on it to make it worthwhile
- One student wrote:
Children seemed to be aware that Africa was 'poor' and that people who lived there had no food, water, shoes etc. Had very stereo-typical views which on this occasion were not effectively challenged. I did try to provide a balance of images on one particular lesson using our wide World Activity pack.

In many ways the students used the World Studies approach to focus on children's inter-personal skills and found that to be more valuable than teaching them content.

Students' professional development

Despite many drawbacks, there is no doubt that around 35 students at different stages of their education as teachers, are now very committed to Development Education/World Studies. Apart from a small section of students who, for personal reasons, may not enter the teaching profession when they qualify, there is now a core of potential teachers whose commitment is embedded in what they believe is good and relevant education for the children.

They also believe that they as teachers have professionally developed much more mainly because of the methods of teaching that are an integral part of Development Education/World Studies. This realisation has enabled students to consider different ways in which they could link Development Education/World Studies to the children in their classroom.

There are a number of examples of how students tried to follow up this development. Appendix Thirteen is the seminar paper presented by one student after her school, placement. Overall value of World Studies/development Education work in schools, from the students' viewpoint, was high.

- * Very important for children's own personal development. The focus on rights and wrongs, people, our attitudes to one another was one of the most important consequences.

This was crucial because many students even when they had global content in their teaching, felt that as good teachers they needed to relate to where the children were and then more on.

- * For the great majority of the students World Studies was generally and most importantly an approach in the classroom. You did not have to do it as a separate subject and if you understood the approach it was very easy to incorporate it in anything you did, including National Curriculum subjects.

- * For students considering and using a World Studies approach it made teaching much more interesting. It raised issues about society.

Very few of the students had done something on social issues before. The training day made them feel confident about considering the approach and the content of their teaching. Many of the students wanted to learn how other people may have coped with issues and tensions arising from teaching World Studies/Development Education.

They felt that the Project had very clearly started them thinking about very specific issues. As students/newly qualified teachers (who could be isolated in the context of their commitment to World Studies/Development Education) they need ongoing support.

School partnerships and curriculum innovation

The Project is a landmark in the necessary extension of the role of mentors in not supporting student teachers' management of teaching, but being proactive. In light of the on-going demands made on teachers, such as the most recent proposals about teaching citizenship in schools, the Project has demonstrated some clear ways in which the implementation of teaching about citizenship could be a part of the mentoring process.

Continued key role of HEIs

Regardless of how much reduced is the time HEIs can spend on the education of the student teachers, they are still the more influential partners in the process of the education of teachers. Lessons can be learnt from how the involvement was managed and supported in each HEI and the different ways in which they can work. The four HEIs involved in the Project have given very clear indications of how HEIs can fulfil the requirements of the National Curriculum and yet provide education that can make the newly qualified teachers committed and efficient exponents of Development Education/World Studies.

A focus on Southern perspectives

Identifying best resources with a Southern perspective is a very important target. The specific aim of identifying and supplying the best resources should take priority so that any new training that takes place will be supported by visibility of these resources. The Pilot has revealed that access to resources varies greatly, depending on the location of the HEIs and the schools.

It has also been shown that there is very limited knowledge about the terminology and the issues surrounding the South, North debate. Identification of appropriate resources could be supplemented by checklists of what would make certain resources acceptable. This will enable teachers to look critically at other resources and consider what is needed to supplement existing material. Once the lists of such

materials and such checklists are available they can be incorporated in the materials given out at the training days.

Confusion about concepts and content for the Southern perspectives and Black communities

There is a clear difference between the roles of Southern groups and Black communities in the context of children's global awareness. Southern groups give a very essential dimension to development issues, crucial to children's learning about the nature of social and economic injustices in the world. Black communities raise issues of racism and discrimination which have global implications. However, further thought needs to be given to the purpose and nature of links with Black communities. A range of issues have to be addressed and care taken to avoid a tokenistic approach:

- In which ways are Black communities in Britain more essential to global awareness than other communities, especially other ethnic communities?
- Is the emphasis different for members of a community born in Britain, who have British passports but have cultural backgrounds different from others?

- Are there similarities in concepts in the experiences of Black and other minority communities in Britain and the framework of World Studies which have to be highlighted?

Concluding Remarks

Evaluating the Pilot Project has been a very enlightening and enjoyable experience. Much more could have been detailed in the evaluators report had more time been available. That is an indication of the way in which all the Project participants responded to the request for information. I am very grateful to all the students and teachers and in particular to the four HEI tutors who supported my work so well.

It has also enabled educationalists to work out how different agendas can operate quite successfully side by side. The National Curriculum needs to be approached as a key focus in the education of children but not the only one. The World Studies Trust because of the commitment it has should be able to play a key role in having a meaningful perspective in the revised curriculum for the Year 2,000.

Will consider World Studies when planning all topics now. (Teacher)

A Winding Path

Life is like a winding path
Losing the way overrunning with grass but,
Still panting on the bumpy road
Climbing up and down on the steep mountain lane
Counting on the light of stars.

Where is the top of the mountain?
Where is my way to hope?
Still unseen
In the mist and storm.

Encountered a path along a bubbling brook
Shining in a wheat field
Under the rosy sky
Extending to the Great Ocean
Birds return to their nests
I also come back to my Home
With a peaceful mind.

Life is like a winding path
Leading to the Golden Road.

Hiroshi Iwama

For and About W.E.F. Members

From the President of WEF

Opening speech of President Shinjo Okuda at the 10th International WEF Conference, Launceston, Tasmania, Dec 1998-Jan 1999

Educating For a Better World: Vision to Action

Welcome to the “40th World Education Fellowship International Conference” in this land of Tasmania, Australia. I am deeply grateful and most pleased that such a large number of people from countries all over the world and from all over Australia will be participating in this conference over the next week. If it had not been for all the passionate efforts of WEF members of each Australian branch office in the preparations and arrangements over the past two years we would never have been able to have this splendid international conference. What a wonderful gift!

First, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the various organizations and groups who lent their helping hands to each Australian member and assisted in the sponsoring of this conference. The WEF was established way back in 1921. It was born immediately after World War I in connection with the so-called “new education movement” out of the great desire to be able to somehow help dissolute people and establish a new education for human beings. As a result of this new education, famous scholars appeared and new education approaches were tried all over the world. These events have gone down in education history as the “new education movement”. Although this “new education movement” was interrupted briefly due to World War II, it has continued with renewed energy to the present day. Furthermore, as you know, these founding scholars of WEF have made major contributions to the birth of UNESCO.

The theme of this 40th WEF International Conference is “Educating For a Better World: Vision to Action”. Through the World Education Fellowship we will strive to “make the world a better place through education, support learning for living, use opportunities to grow through cultural interchange, and enjoy meaningful global connections”. I would like to reconfirm our conviction that it is human beings who need to create, support and develop a better world. It is crucial that we clearly conceptualize how we should think about human beings and what we mean by human beings.

Whenever I think about human beings, the following three aspects come to mind. Humans are subjective things who inhabit the natural world, humans are subjective beings who live a social life, and humans are subjective beings who pursue culture and values. Now, allow me to address the question of how to approach the education of these human beings. First, we must educate human beings as inhabitants of the natural world about how to live together with nature, preservation of the natural environment, health and safety. Second, we must educate human beings who

live a social life in how to conduct good human relations, ethics and morals. Third, we must educate culture and value-seeking humans about cultural traditions and the values of our ancestors, and how to create new culture and values in particular, how to interpret this knowledge and acquire these skills. These are great challenges for education. Furthermore, through this education we must think as basic the nurturing of interest, concern, desire, attitudes and abilities to conceptualize, make judgements and express ourself. It is crucial that we become human beings who have acquired capabilities in these three aspects in order to build a better world.

As we approach the 21st century, in particular we must remember that as of this year it has been exactly 50 years since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the United Nations. In addition, we are in the middle of the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education which began in 1995. Therefore we must take this WEF International Conference as an opportunity to think anew about the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and human rights education. In addition to sponsoring 50-year commemorative events for the Universal Declaration of Human Rights all over the world and renewed efforts in the promotion of human rights education, I urge you all to think about human rights education at the WEF International Conference and keep the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in mind. Recently the Asian countries in the Pacific Rim held a three-day conference in Osaka, Japan this past November 25th through 27th. At this conference, entitled the “International Conference for the Commemoration of the 50th Year of International Human Rights: International Education of Asian Pacific Rim Human Beings”, they adopted a declaration for the 21st century.

In conclusion, I have great expectations for the 21st century and would be greatly pleased if I could have everyone’s agreement on the following. Our ultimate goal should be the pursuit of peace and assurance of good health and safety. For that purpose we must promote and mutually support one another in (1) the respect for each person’s human rights, (2) respect for the individual culture of each country and ethnic group, and (3) the attainment of prosperity of each person in his or her country while maintaining global concerns. I hope you will all agree that in order to realize this goal, the education and learning of each person as a human being is of primary importance.

Today, let us join together to further promote the education and learning of each individual as a human being, to strive for the solution of various global problems and to build a better, happier world.

Finally, once again, I would like to express my gratitude to the Tasmanian Section of the Australian Council of WEF for their great efforts in hosting this International Conference and to the Queensland Section for arranging the program.

Thank you for your kind attention.

WEF Book Award

The every two years recurrent event of the WEF book award, kindly sponsored by the Education Services, Oxford, concerns the decision of giving one of the writers of books about or related to education that are sent in and nominated for the award, a prize in honour of his or her work. After the books have been nominated the Guiding committee of the WEF asks a person who is a member of the WEF and has special knowledge in the field of education in relationship to the principles of WEF (see back cover of New Era in Education), to read the books carefully and thoroughly, to estimate the value of each of them and to decide which writer should receive the award.

Last year the Guiding Committee asked Peter van Stapele, chairman of the Dutch Section and Hon Vice President of the WEF, to act as the person to review the books and write a report on which basis the committee could decide who had won the award. In November last year van Stapele sent his report to the Committee who have accepted the report formally and adopted his conclusions and recommendation.

New Era in Education publishes the report because it can be expected that members of the WEF and other readers of New Era will be interested in the books that were nominated as well as in the reviews about them and in the recommendation with regard to the book that has won the award.

Report of WEF Book Award adjudication

Barber, M (1997) *The Learning Game: Arguments for an education revolution*, London, INDIGO edition, pp315 ISBN 0-575-40100-1

In his book Barber sets out to create a new vision of education in Britain for two reasons: 'Within the foreseeable future, Britain will need an education service which is capable of providing higher standards to match those anywhere on earth and which simultaneously promotes and supports a thriving, diverse, liberal democracy'.

Barber's book is published in the context of the election of the Blair government in May 1997 and of the debate on isolation, alienation and indifference on modern Britain. This debate was called for in *The Guardian* after the jury's verdict in the case of the abduction and murder of James Bulger. Barber's book 'is intended to contribute to that debate, at least in relation to education and the role of learning in society'.

The first part of the book deals with the subject of crisis in education and sets out the challenges that are to be met in a world that is - or can be experienced as - chaotic and rapidly changing. In this part Barber argues that the education crisis - government versus teachers - and the crisis about young people today - the Bulger case and after - 'are inextricably linked and the reform of the education service is central to the solution of both'.

Parts two and three of the book deal with education in Great Britain as it was and as it is. Part four, about 'As it might be', redefines the purpose of education and the tasks of 'new teachers', expressing valuable ideas and feelings about the millennium curriculum and the creation of a learning society, mainly not discussing (possibilities of) practical existence or questions about curriculum

development with regard to the curriculum-as-lived and to methodology, which might slightly disappoint some readers.

In this fourth part, however, Barber's book becomes a stimulating reading experience for thinkers about education, not only in Britain but worldwide because it makes clear that nationally as well as internationally a fundamental cultural change is necessary to meet the challenges set out in part one of the book. With vision and imagination Barber gives an encouraging description of the desirable qualities and characteristics of new curriculum development in Great Britain, also examining the role of government. This is among other things encouraging because the day after the election in 1997 Barber was appointed to head the new Standards and Effectiveness Unit in the Department for Education and Employment of Great Britain and Tony Blair wrote (or said) with regard to *The learning game*, that Barber 'is one of the most stimulating thinkers in British education today'. Possibly a good start of education renewal in Britain under Labour.

Masheded, M (1998) **Freedom from Bullying**, Rendlesham (Green Print), Foreword by James Hemming; drawings by Susanna Masheded, pp 155, ISBN 1-85425-092-2

It is certainly necessary that all 'teachers and parents should be committed to eliminating bullying from children's lives ... it is something to tackle together' (James Hemming in his Foreword). The purpose of Masheded's book is to give practical help to teachers and parents to work with their children to prevent bullying in and out of the school situation and to deal with bullying when it occurs. The book is divided into two parts: 'the first deals with preventive measures by giving practical ideas on how to bring up and educate children to be more able to withstand any attempt to bully them and also to make them less likely to become bullies. The second section deals with ways of handling bullying once it is taking place and with the school environment'.

The book, however, is not as fulfilling as might be desired or expected. Although it contains many small parts of useful practical information about working with children, especially in the first part, the book as a whole lacks a clear premise as well as a lucid main story-line (description-line) with which the different subjects Masheded writes about (the sub-lines) could have been interwoven. The book as a whole as well as different parts of it do not deal with the main subject thoroughly and completely enough. In the introduction to the first part, for example, besides the bullies and the bullied victims only 'onlookers' are mentioned. The bullies are called 'protagonists' and the reader may ask then: are there no antagonists, helpers, the phenomenon of power, beneficiaries, et cetera? Masheded does not discuss the fact that in real situations the structure of the group in which bullying occurs is rather complicated, which is directly related to the main characteristics of processes of bullying which teachers and parents should know if they really want to understand processes of bullying as a basis to learn how to cope with them successfully.

This is only one example of the fact that the book as a whole is lacking much of the necessary information for readers to be helped to work with children to prevent bullying in and out of the school situation. It even does not deal clearly and thoroughly enough with the important fact that many

bullies are characterized by not having, showing or using the ability to imagine and share another person's feelings and experiences, which really goes to the heart of the matter. With regard to related questions, for example how to deal with bullies, most texts in the book are, possibly for that reason, not thoroughly worked out. Procedures and strategies to fall back on in dealing with bullies, are mentioned but not described on the level of an instructional format or a protocol (for example, related to dealing with the systematic character of bullying and to methods of increasing the ability of empathy).

Experienced teachers and parents could use Masheder's book in their work and make a choice out of the many methods that are shortly described - for example within a work plan that they could design themselves. Nevertheless, with regard to the description of many of those methods more information is needed. The part about (activities of) body language, to give one example, does not deal with relations between image, text and sound at all. Tone of voice is mentioned but only in a general way without giving clear examples and about activities on body language only a few examples are given, while it is not clear why, and in relation to what kind of work plan, the given examples are chosen. The different creative activities for instance, are not clearly related to the fact that and how children have the ability to develop their power of imaging and sharing another person's feelings, experience, et cetera, which could be related to possibilities to let them play and talk to create dialogues.

In short, in Masheda's book several interesting and important subjects and working methods are mentioned but they have not been worked out and placed within the context of a lucid main story-line (description-line) based upon a clear premise. Bullying is an evil that has a systematic character, quite different from non-systematically teasing through which children are provoked in a playful way. Bullying is a process that in the longer run creates in the bullied victims that innermost feeling of being hated which can even result in the feeling of the child that she or he is hateworthy, deserving hate. It therefore is really necessary that all 'teachers and parents should be committed to eliminating bullying from children's lives ..it is something to tackle together'. Masheder's book does not fulfil completely and thoroughly enough the needs of readers looking for practical help to work with their children to prevent bullying in and out of the school situation and to deal with it when it occurs.

Henry, M (1996) **Young Children, Parents and Professionals: Enhancing the links in early childhood**, London and New York, Routledge, pp218, ISBN 0-415-12832-3

Margaret Henry's book is about meeting the basic needs of young children and also the basic needs of those caring for young children: parents and professionals who share the fostering of young children's development. In her book Henry intends to produce evidence that these sets of needs 'are interlinked and that there are parallels between the behaviours required to meet the needs of young children and the behaviours we adults require to meet our own needs for care and education'. The purpose of the book is suggesting some answers to questions related to the above

formulated premise of the book.

The second chapter of the book - which deals with the subject of the key needs of young children and with fundamental needs of parents and professionals, among other things related to interaction between parents and professionals - shows that the book is partly written on a level involving a rather great amount of reading and study. As a result the book requires from its readers at least academic interest as one of the springs to read it thoroughly. For many parents, therefore, it will be difficult to travel together with Henry in her long journey, full of experiences, from one project to another, reaching insight into 'the establishment of significant behavioural dimensions which link young children, their parents and relevant professionals and which enhance the development of all three'.

From then on the main part of the rest of the book - the chapters 4, 5 and 6 - becomes less academic. Although remaining a professional textbook, it meets the needs of reading parents and other non-professional people who are interested in discussing questions about the fundamental needs of young children, parents and professionals, and the possibility to meet simultaneously the needs of each of these three sets of people.

In chapters 4 to 6, readers will find valuable and usable information about relationships between parents and professionals engaged in caregiving and education. Those chapters deal in more detail 'at how, in the family day care program, the positive exercise of each of the three dimensions enhanced the development and learning of providers and facilitator, as well as that of the children in the providers' care'. Henry also, and especially, looks 'at a variety of examples from other settings to see that it is through the positive exercise of these caregiving dimensions - responsiveness, control and involvement - that parents and professionals can facilitate not only young children's development but also that of one another'.

In Henry's book, given the fact that the book is a professional textbook in the first place, the increasingly held notion of continuity in development has been very lucidly 'applied to adult, as well as child, needs for trust, autonomy and initiative'. The final chapter of the book 'consolidates the links between Vygotskian (1978,1981) and empowerment theories and the other major themes that have recurred throughout the book'. In the last part of the final chapter Henry draws out implications of the principle of Charles Dickens' Mr Micawber, which is transformed in the following formulation: when resources are greater than the demands made upon us, we function very well; but when the demands (stresses) upon us exceed our resources, we cannot cope. Henry has taken this principle a little further, proposing that adult exercise of the same behaviours, at the positive end of the behavioural dimensions, can improve the resources/demands ratio not only for young children, parents and professionals across early childhood settings'. In each story for example, the resources/demands ratio has been improved for the children, the parents and the professionals, which is called a 'win-win-win situation'.

Henry's book is a rich source of very well structured and detailed information concerning that and how all three members of the parent/professional/child group are better able to reach out towards the challenges of trust, autonomy

and initiative, when the two adults in the group ‘offer each other, as well as the child, responsiveness, mutual control and involvement’.

Different sets of questions or problems, related to each of the chapters, appear at the end of the book, to serve as discussion material for small groups. The book also contains a list of references and an index of the most important subjects and names.

Vygotsky, LS (1978) **Mind in Society: The development of higher psychological processes**, Cambridge, ME: Harvard University Press

Vygotsky, LS (1981) **The Genesis of Higher Mental Functions** in JW Wertsch (ed) **Concept of Activity in Soviet Psychology**, Armonk, New York: Sharpe

Conclusion

After some consideration, especially because it was difficult to make a choice between Michael Barber’s book and the book by Margaret Henry, I have chosen to advise WEF’s Guiding Committee to decide that *Young Children, Parents and Professionals: Enhancing the links in early childhood* will be the award-winning book. It is a work of academic achievement and it has been written with effort and great academic skill, building on Henry’s PhD thesis in 1992 on *An in-service program in family day care: supporting the development of young children and their care providers*, Brisbane (University of Queensland).

Henry’s book is a professional textbook of high standard on the subject of the needs of and relationships between children, parents and professionals, for which reason the book also will be of interest for parents and other educators interested in meeting young children’s needs, and their own. Important parts of the book can be read by people without an academic background, although it would be worthwhile to transform the most important parts of the book into a book for a larger audience. The information given is important for all parents and other educators.

Peter van Stapele, Dept of Literature, Leyden University, The Netherlands

**WEF - Indian Section and Gujarat Research Society
Seminar on Educating For a Better World:
Vision to Action**

Collaborating institutions H.J. College of Education & Jasudben M.L. School

A seminar on the theme “*Educating for a better world: vision to action*” was held on 16th September 1998 by World Education Fellowship, Indian Section, in collaboration with Gujarat Research Society, Khar, Mumbai, at the premises of the Society. H.J. College of Education and Jasudben M.L. School were the collaborating institutions.

We were fortunate to have Dr Rex Andrews, the Chairman of the British Section of WEF in 1983 and WEF Representative to UNESCO until 1998, and his wife, Mrs Marie Andrews, with us. Dr Andrews delivered the Keynote address on “*Concept of a Better World in Cross-Cultural*

Perspective”, one of the aspects of the main theme.

The main focus of the Keynote address was on Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which according to him is the best summary of principles embodying justice and compassion towards humankind.

Principals of various Educational Institutions in Mumbai, Principal and faculty members of Gujarat Research society’s H.J. College of Education and trainee teachers of this college and Principal and teachers of Jasudben M.L. School participated in this seminar. The participants were given various sub-topics for presenting their papers, out of the four main aspects of the theme, namely (I) imaginative ways of thinking and knowing, (ii) moral responsibility and concern for the common good, (iii) care and compassion for others, and (iv) responsibility for the global environment.

This seminar was a very invigorating experience where the Principals of various institutions, faculty of the College of Education, teachers of the school and the trainee teachers of the college, all shared the same platform to express their views. The seminar was also a learning experience for one and all when fresh thoughts poured in during the deliberations.

On this occasion the WEF Indian Section was able to put across to the gathering the continuous role the WEF has played in promoting progressive and forward looking educational ideas and practices since its inception in 1921.

The theme - *Educating for a better world: vision to action* - presupposes that the world needs to be better than what it is and Education, being a strong instrument of change, can realise the dream of a better world. As Mahatma Gandhi has said, “We must be the change we wish to see in the world”. The Mother of Shri Aurobindo Ashram has expressed the same view, “Change yourself if you wish to change the World”. For this, we must do our part as nations, as communities, as families and as individuals.

Various ideas and strategies emerged out of this seminar which are recorded in printed form. However, the soul stirring experience was the participating gathering striving for the same goal and sharing their views which created a total environment of harmony and well-being.

I take this opportunity to thank Dr Urmi Sampat, Principal of H.J. College of Education and Mrs Asha Bhandari, Principal of Jasudben M.L. School, whose sincere co-operation and valuable support were a great help in planning and implementation of this seminar. Mrs Srilata Bhattacharya beautifully summed up the proceedings of the seminar bringing out the salient ideas of each paper of the participants. I thank her for her lively presentation. It is with sincere efforts of the faculty members of H.J. College of Education that this report has taken a printed form.

Kallolini Hazarat, Chairperson, WEF Indian Section

Anne-Karin Thompson

Dear Mark Jones

Last year you sent Anne-Karin details of the WEF AGM and 40th International Conference. She did not reply as she was going through treatment. I have to tell you she died of cancer on 28 October 1998.

Reviews

Complexities of Teaching: Child-Centred Perspectives by Ciaran Sugrue, Falmer Press, London, 1997. 253 pp. ISBN 0 7507 0479 9, cased, price £42.00; 0 7507 0480 2, paper, price £14.95

In this book, Falmer's fifth publication in a sociologically-oriented New Prospects series, Ciaran Sugrue sets out to 'understand, recover and reinvent' child-centred teaching. He does so for two main reasons. Firstly, he notices how the ideology has been scapegoated over recent years by many politicians and academics as part of their attempts to justify or propose reforms: he presumably wishes to set the record straight on these sorts of score. Secondly, he reckons that progressivism as a large-scale ideological movement (like traditionalism) has always taken what he calls a 'cycloptic' rather than 'januform' approach to the educational scene. Progressivists appear to have suffered from tunnel vision regarding what is and is not acceptable in classrooms, excluding more than they should. From his 'post-modern' perspective, Sugrue finds classrooms too complex and problematic to benefit from simple polarisations: teachers have to exploit all possible methodologies within their varying political, cultural and physical contexts to cope with the everyday dilemmas which typically face them.

Sugrue's resolve to outface detractors with various axes to grind is commendable. There is undoubtedly virtue in his tackling issues surrounding the great 'meta-narratives', as he calls them, with a clean sheet, although he does rather overstate his post-modern dislike of the progressivist/traditionalist dichotomy. Many theorists and teachers no

doubt did unwisely polarise their expressed attitudes to teaching, falling prey to their own rhetoric; yet to 'blame the priesthood for the priest' is to perpetrate the same injustices Sugrue is keen to detect in other people's attacks. However, in the event, his review of research, terms and principles drawn from child-centred literature, reinforced by supporting critical theory (chapters 1 and 2) is fairly sober and even-handed. Indeed, his 'thick descriptions' of present-day child-centred practices contrast in a revealing fashion with the stereotypes which other writers often use. They illustrate as well as anyone could expect the enormous potential child-centred teaching has for pushing children to the limits of their achievement, laying to rest the dogma that progressivism is synonymous with 'laissez faire' classroom policies.

Sugrue's own case study research was carried out in Ireland, where 'child-centredness' is still official educational policy. It is reported (as it was carried out) in three phases: sixteen interviews with teachers are followed up by six mini case studies and one in-depth enquiry. Because of his interpretive approach, Sugrue is able to sift from his interview data (chapters 3 and 4) a wide variety of child-centred precepts cherished by the teachers he questioned, giving birth to diverse planning and pedagogic intentions, fulfilled by an equally splendid variety of practices. The practices themselves, examined during the six mini case studies, are analysed within three 'themes'. These denote: practitioners' teaching constructions-communication (formal and informal pupil-teacher interactions); structure (participants' planning and organisation); and balance (the way teachers achieved their broadly balanced 'child-centred' aims). Sugrue's post-

(contd/ from page 31)

She told me she had a wonderful time at the conference in Malaysia and met inspiring people. If you had a WEF Journal/Newsletter there could perhaps be an obituary, but I don't think there is.

Her approach to environmental education was an inspiration to many in Scotland and perhaps abroad.

Yours sincerely,

Brian Thompson.

Most of you in WEF will be unaware of the name Anne-Karin Thompson for she is a relatively new member to WEF, joining us in April 1996 when she was sponsored by WEF (GB) along with myself to go to the 39th conference in Malaysia. I quickly warmed to Anne-Karin who clearly cared a great deal about the work that she was involved in as well as having a great sense of humour. By the end of the conference I felt as though I had known her for years, such was the friendship that had grown between us. It was with

some sense of sadness that we said our goodbyes on that last day, knowing all too well that living in Scotland it was unlikely that we would meet up again in the near future.

We briefly kept in touch and I continued to send her minutes and agendas etc just in case she was able to attend a meeting. I was however surprised not to hear from her at all in 1998, not even an acknowledgement that she had received anything. It therefore came as a complete shock to find out that she had in fact died from cancer in October last year.

Our thoughts have to go out to her husband and her family at this time. I have sent him a letter of condolence on behalf of all of us. Having known Anne-Karin albeit for a brief period of time, I know she will be greatly missed by many people, especially her family but also all the children who have benefited from the work she has done on looking at ways of improving the environment.

Thank you Anne-Karin and God bless from all of us.

Mark Jones,
Secretary, WEF GB.

modern outlook cues him well for the disjunctions between concepts, intentions and actions which are commonplace in teaching, yet, through their existence, have flawed the research designs of those more scientific researchers seeking to hit the same targets. Finally, his in-depth study (chapters 5 to 8) uses the three themes identified earlier as a cultural lens to illuminate a single teacher's work, highlighting both the uniqueness of her style and yet its antecedents in her intuitive reflections on child-centre ideology.

Sugrue concludes his treatise (chapter 10) by hinting that he has accomplished a 'more inclusive' account of child-centred teaching than those working in 'the grand narratives' normally achieve. He may well have done, although to an extent he diminishes by implication the ideas of earlier 'progressivist' writers such as Alan Blyth and Vic Kelly, who might reasonably have thought that they, too, had some hold on the problematic nature of class teaching when they published their accounts. Nevertheless, anyone wishing to grasp what progressivism or child-centredness actually means *in situ* should turn to Sugrue's case studies, for they meticulously chronicle the daily life of the teachers he observed and talked to, isolating what the child-centred vision means for each one (each in some sense concerned with the learning needs of individual children, and a set of aims rather wider than curricular delivery). Such grounding of ideological principle in practical realities matters enormously. Given that no-one working in primary education can avoid having been depressed by the persistently misconceived and sometimes misrepresented images of child-centred teaching which have been rife for many years, it is refreshing to read such a lengthy and detailed account of practitioners at work, who are able to press on regardless, implementing their child-centred philosophy in rewarding ways. There are more than glimmers of hope for the future shining from the pages of this book.

Peter Silcock

Senior Lecturer in Education (until retirement)
Nene College, Northampton

Developmental Spelling: A Handbook of One Hundred Spelling Lessons by Diane Montgomery (126pp) Learning Difficulties Research Project 1997 ISBN: 1 901686 00 0

As the title suggests this spiral bound, A5 sized publication consists of approximately a hundred spelling lessons, one per page, each describing an aspect of spelling and how this should be taught. The rationale and research behind this approach to the teaching of spelling is contained in another publication by the author *Spelling: Remedial Strategies (1997) London, Cassell*. Without this background information it is perhaps difficult to understand the sequence of teaching which introduces the phonemes /i/, /t/, /p/, /n/, /s/ and /a/ in isolation and then in single syllable words e.g.: sit, sip, pit. This is followed by the teaching of some consonant blends, before the introduction of phonemes which are likely to be perceptually easier for children to identify such as /m/ and the long vowels.

Features of the teaching approach are the link between spelling and the development of a cursive style of handwriting and the use of a multisensory approach to support the learner's development of phonic skills. Consonant and vowel sounds and letter names are taught together and at a later stage spelling rules are given and the learner is encouraged to use and explain when and how these are used.

In addition to the step by step programme for the development of spelling rules there are lessons under the heading of 'linguistics' which look at syllable structure and some aspects of morphology. There are also lessons which detail different approaches to teaching, such as 'precision teaching' and 'cognitive process strategies' but further information would be needed to allow these to be used with confidence.

The assessment of spelling, using error analysis on written samples from children of different ages, is also described. This is a useful approach, but again one might need more support to undertake this oneself. Clearly it is important to assess children's prior knowledge and their strengths and weaknesses. The author could have given more guidance on this so that the correct starting point is identified. These different types of lesson occur throughout the whole book. They are itemised in the contents but it might have been easier, from a user's point of view, to have had a different section of the book for each type of lesson.

Important points regarding the relationships between phonemes and graphemes are made explicit in the content of some of these lessons. For example, the two different sounds for /s/ (s and z) are demonstrated with words such as 'this' and 'is'. This could have been developed further by looking at examples of plurals. Children are often told that you add a letter s to a singular form and the plural has the sound /s/ at the end. By using the examples of 'dogs', 'dads' and 'bibs' it is clear that this is not the case!

The approach taken by the lessons in this book is to make explicit the complexity of English spelling and to explain rules and exceptions to these rules. At times the potential confusion between what is heard and the visual representation is not clarified. Lesson 72, for example teaches different past tense forms(-ed, -d and -t). While it is noted that learners will need to listen to hear the difference between -d as in 'said' and -t as in 'sent' it is not explained that the final consonant of 'walked', for example, sounds like -t but is written -ed. Another lesson, explaining the vowel /a/, uses the indefinite article as an example, suggesting learners gain oral practice using this before a noun. However the usual pronunciation of the indefinite article is the schwa vowel, so again this would need to be clarified.

The audience for this book is not entirely clear, as in some lessons relatively simple processes, such as collecting writing samples from children, are described, whereas other sessions would require knowledge about language and teaching approaches. It is suggested in the introduction that this programme could be used with young children but the teaching approaches and the examples of words used to demonstrate spelling rules are more suitable for older children or adults who have had difficulty learning to spell.

This book may be suitable for those people who have

undertaken a particular course in teaching children with specific learning difficulties but it does not appear to offer a great deal to mainstream teachers. Whilst it could be used by teachers as a resource for gaining information about spelling rules, there is now a great deal of material on this topic in schools, as phonological awareness and the explicit teaching of spelling in context is dealt with in detail in the current literacy training programme.

If this book is reprinted it would benefit from better proof reading. Additionally, the 'notebook' style format, whereby one turns the book over to read the next page, leads to great difficulties for the user and this could be reviewed.

Joy Jarvis
Senior Lecturer in Education,
University of Hertfordshire, UK.
and **Julie Steer**
Literacy Consultant, London
Borough of Harrow, UK.

Further Education and Democracy: The Community College Alternative, by Keith Wymer, Bilston College Publications in association with Education Now, 1966, pp120, price £9.00, ISBN 1-871526-26-4

The book, **Further Education and Democracy**, is about democracy in further education and the author deals with the issue in the first seven chapters by explaining the lack of it in the system. The book is about a chief executive's perspective on the issue and how the lack of democracy hinders the running of the organisation. It deals with the background of the birth of further education (FE), and the part played by the politics of the day in development of the system. The author takes us through the journey from the various Education Acts and how they have influenced the democratic process in these institutions. He is at pains to explain the way the incorporations of FE colleges were to provide independence from the clutches of local education authority, obviously a very positive move welcomed by some chief executives. But the promised land of independence was soon lost to the newly established quango - the Further Education Funding Council (FEFC) who had responsibility for the control of funding. The funding was closely linked to strategic planning and FEFC produced a framework for strategic planning and the colleges had to abide by, which meant there was further loss of democracy.

The author argues that corporations were created without any clear guidelines or accountability which resulted in the decisions being taken which were not beneficial to our customers/students in this market economy. The colleges, though independent, were expected to choose between courses which attracted funding and the ones which served the needs of the local community. This hindered any course developments for the unemployed and those with special educational needs. He suggests that colleges, because of their narrow vocationalism, could become vocational qualification factories rather than educational institutions

serving the needs of the local community. Employers' interests were paramount in these new corporations and they controlled the governing bodies of colleges because of sheer numbers.

An interesting account of the explicit responsibilities and implicit powers of the chief executives is given. There is an account of a case where conflict between college management and unions is created by untrained but powerful governors from the business sector. The author is critical of control by one interested group as it is contrary to the principle of democracy. He is of the view that the chief executives felt they were caught between FEFC and the corporations without any real power to influence anything. Further, FEFC controls colleges through excessive regulation and auditing and on every occasion FEFC decision is final.

FEFC was brought in to carry out any investigations when things went wrong but were not involved initially to ensure that things did not go wrong. The author recognises the positive and professional contribution made by FEFC inspectors but is critical of the system which places them in this impossible situation. He further argues that quangos are riddled with high levels of inefficiency, malpractice and corruption. Democratic decisions taken by colleges can be overruled by FEFC. Democracy in FE can only be achieved by setting up various community colleges responsive to the needs of local communities in different parts of the country. Because of lack of uniformity in the needs of various local communities it would be impossible to have them conforming to the norms set up by a national unitary body such as FEFC.

The experience of setting up the Bilston Community college in response to the needs of local unemployed people and the difficulties the college had to encounter from various funding agencies is described very passionately in the book. The Bilston experience does show how a college can survive because of support from the local community even when there is conflict between the college and the LEA. It is encouraging to see how a college looked at alternative ways of securing funding for the courses relevant to the local community because of strong commitment at the top. A realistic comparison is given between the community colleges in the USA and UK. We might have to consider the international approach to community colleges.

One of the main themes running through the book is the needs of the local community in terms of the needs of the unemployed. There is an occasional mention of the needs of women and ethnic minorities but only in terms of unemployment issues. The fact that the needs of these groups may be different because of social and cultural norms seems to have been completely omitted. The book gives an account of difficulties encountered by the chief executive because of external pressures, but there is no mention of the presence or absence of democracy, or any democratic procedures as viewed by the staff at various levels in the organisation. There may be a very valid and reasoned argument for this but it is not made explicit in the book and therefore makes one wonder if there is a political agenda which has not been spelt out.

The book certainly adds to our understanding of democracy, or lack of it, in the Further Education sector but

it leaves the reader wondering as to what actually happens inside a college, be it a community college or a technical college. My personal view is that lack of democracy would probably create a demoralised and frustrated workforce and I would have liked to have seen some evidence of understanding of the views of the workforce.

Kamlesh Banerjee,
Senior Lecturer in Human Resource
Management at the London Institute HEC

The Next Learning System, Educational Heretics
Press, 1997, pp65, £7.95.

It is rare for a book to carry the pertinent putsch that this one does. How it came to be so is interesting too. Roland Meighan and his colleagues started out to examine exactly what happens when parents decide to educate their children at home as they are legally allowed to do in Britain. The original aim of Education Otherwise was, as much as anything, to support these parent adventurers. But a close watch was also kept on the parents' experiences. The outcome of it all is very challenging. As evidence mounted, it became clear that education at home was more productive in several ways than most school education, not because teachers lacked skill but because they are tied up with a system that, as often as not, inhibits the natural learning impulses of the child.

It is in this area that public education has been profoundly wrong from the start. It sought to standardize children to fit into set stages of achievement. But the whole wonder of being human is that we are all different. To support that at, say, age seven, all children ought to be able to attain a standard norm of attainment and, year by year, other norms, is nonsense pedagogically.

All children are not only different in their motivating interests but also in the way they learn. Education at home has brought this out. It is the unique child's energizing self that is the source of effort and concentration in learning, not a standardized curriculum imposed from above.

Why do we have this problem of young people bunking off school? Either because they feel put down by their school experiences or because they are bored. Meighan wants us to build an educational system that marries into the natural striving of every child. And he confirms that as the right

way to go by research into the positive results of home education. Home educators will love this book.

But, obviously, all children cannot be educated at home. Often, these days, parents are working or do not fancy acting as teachers. So what? The answer is obvious enough; we have to bring the educational system up to date. Schools should be challenging interest centres, not goal-restricted swot shops. Many schools now seek to offer interest and challenge to their pupils but find themselves struggling to accommodate their aims to the official expectations. They find themselves caught between those who want to impose standard patterns of attainment on the young and those who prefer to nourish the young through developing the personal capacities of each individual child. Of course at the hub of the need for fundamental change in our educational system is the fact that we are now living in a very different world from that in which the educational habits of formal schooling was, for many children, the main source of information. Today, information is pouring in on the young from all sides. Their problem is to sort out the truth from the nonsense. That implies much more discussion within the educational process. Those educated at home usually get drawn into discussion but, in schools, over-sized, or even average-sized classes can make meaningful discussion difficult to attain.

This brings us to the social issue. People used to argue that home education impedes social development. Meighan shows that this is an error. Not all schools are the communities they ought to be, nor can they be if classes are unusually large. What, we may ask at this point, is the right size for a class if all its members are to feel significantly involved. 'About twenty' seems to be the right answer. Parents who can afford private schools for their children often do so to buy for them the advantages of smaller classes. Or they could educate them at home.

The impact of this book is that it is succinct, comprehensive, and challenging at a time when we all know that educational systems around the world need to be revitalized by courageous changes. The heartening experiences of home educators is set out here as insights that can be fed back into the educational systems of the 21st century. We all have a part to play in this. **The Next Learning System** is a stimulating read for anyone who cares about the future of education. For those who educate their children at home, or are about to do so, this book is a precise source of information and encouragement.

James Hemming,
a consultant psychologist and a member of
the WEF Guiding Committee

Themes for the Future Issues of New Era in Education and Deadlines for Contributors

August 1999: Cost of Higher Education: Taking Stock

Deadline for articles: March 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: May 1, 1999

December 1999: Education = Literacy and Numeracy?

Deadlines for articles: July 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: September 1, 1999

April 2000: Targets for the New Millennium

Deadline for articles: November 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: January 7, 2000

August 2000: Targets for Continuing Education

Deadline for articles: March 1, 2000

Deadline for other contributions: May 1, 2000

December 2000: Philosophy for Education

Deadline for articles: July 1, 2000

Deadline for other contributions: September 1, 2000

Notes for contributors to the New Era in Education

Contributions are welcome on any other areas of the work of the World Education Fellowship. They should be sent to the editor, Dr. Sneh Shah, Faculty of Humanities, Languages and Education, University of Hertfordshire, Watford Campus, Aldenham, Hertfordshire, UK, WD2 8AT, tel: +44(0)1707 285677, fax: +44(0)1707 285616.

Length of Articles

These should normally be between 1000 and 4000 words.

Format of Articles

Authors should send three copies typed on single-sided A4 paper, with double line spacing. The pages should be numbered and each copy should have at the top of the first page the title, author's name, and the date sent to the editor. Once the article has been accepted authors will be required to send a 3.5 disc. Citation of sources in the text should normally be in the convention (Graves, 1990), (Spielburg in Desai 1980), (Kironyo 1981, 1984, 1989).

References and bibliographies should normally be presented as follows:

Adams, E. (1955) **Testing Individual Children**, London, UK, Wimbledon Press

Adams, E. (1975) Profiling, **New Journal**, 5(3), 55-74

Adams, E. (1981) Self-managed Learning pp 168-183 in Andrews, R (ed) **The Power to Learn, London, UK, Special Press**

Adams, E. (ed)(1988) **Profiles and Record Keeping (Third Edition)**, London, UK, Special Press

All headings and sub-headings should be in upper and lower case and should not be underlined. All headings should be bold, sub-headings in italic.

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The editor reserves the right to accept or reject an article submitted for publication. The author may be approached by the editor for amendments or clarifications. For an article that has been accepted for publication the editor reserves the right to make additional changes as may be deemed necessary before publication.

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NEW ERA IN EDUCATION is the termly journal of the **World Education Fellowship (WEF)**. The **Fellowship** is an international association with sections and representatives in more than twenty countries, which has played a continuing role in promoting the progress of educational ideas and practices in the twentieth century.

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Founded in 1921, the World Education Fellowship is voluntary and non-partisan, and enjoys the status of a UNESCO non-governmental organisation category B. It is open to educators, members of associated professions, and to all members of the public who have a common interest in education at all levels. The Fellowship meets biennially in international conferences, publishes books and pamphlets, and, through its national sections, participates in workshops, meetings and developmental projects. The Fellowship does not advocate any dogma; each member is free to put the principles indicated below into practice in ways which are best suited to the environment in which he/she is living and working.

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- (d) foster educational contacts between all peoples including people from the third world in order to further international understanding and peace.
- (e) promote education as a lifelong process for all people, regardless of sex, race, beliefs, economic status or abilities.
- (f) encourage cooperative community involvement in clarifying educational goals and undertaking educational programmes.
- (g) secure for teachers the training, facilities, opportunities and status they need to be effective, professional people.

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Contributions to *New Era in Education* are welcomed. Articles in the first part of the journal are refereed. Reports, short articles or views on any aspect that relates to the principles of the World Education Fellowship are also very welcome. The Editor is anxious to receive details of good practice and responses to themes covered.

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Higher Education: Taking stock

Sneh Shah

On July 2nd 1999, **The Times Higher Education Supplement** in the United Kingdom carried an article about Amos Oz, an Israeli academic and novelist. A veteran peace campaigner, Oz lectures in literature at the Ben Gurion University of Negev. He believes universities can play a key role in the long term struggle for peaceful co-existence:

Universities are one of the few enclaves where conflicts can be studied in an unbiased way, where the various narratives can co-exist, meet and confront each other without suppressing one another. They are the one place where the conflict is not conducted, but researched and studied. They're often islands of sanity in an emotionally charged or injured atmosphere.

Oz's remarks, and the ethos of the university he describes, could in many ways refer to what universities used to be seen as - centres of learning, where academic excellence and research would trigger off important changes in society. They were also locations with an environment totally supporting learning.

The report this year of a survey undertaken by the Centre for Professional and Higher Education Research at Kassel University in Germany showed three small East German universities were in the top five, with Eichstatt University, a small Catholic institution with 4,000 students, being at the top. Students clearly preferred smaller institutions where there was good contact with lecturers and an effective learning climate.

Currently, both nationally and globally, changes are afoot, the pace reflecting the phenomenal rate of change often simultaneously pervading many areas such as technology and communication. The question is whether many of the changes will support the critical role of higher education as perceived by Oz, or whether policy changes affecting higher education are based on completely different agendas. Policies and economic changes have not only increased the number of universities in the world but are leading to the creation of very large institutions which begs the question if largeness means loss of the supportive learning environment that East German students prefer.

Another factor, however, affecting the nature of links between learners and teachers is the media used in teaching. The study funded by the Department of International Development in the United Kingdom has been published with the title **The Development of Virtual Education: A Global perspective** (The Commonwealth of Learning, 1999). In the past universities undertook to look after the students in

every respect from the time they enrolled to the time they left, with their certificates of learning. Universities can now do one or two of the previous tasks and still lead to students receiving their certificates. A wide variety of private and public sectors are now likely to share these functions. Increasingly universities may not undertake any teaching at all. The projected University for Industry, in the United Kingdom, is being planned on the same model.

Advances in technology can enable more people to benefit from learning through distance learning programmes. Equity can ensue, as individuals can continue with their income generating activities and at the same time advance their own learning. With more businesses undertaking the organisation of university education, or even forming universities, career progression of individuals can be supported.

This leaves open the question whether learning can be facilitated and financed for its own sake. David Blunkett, Secretary of State for Education in the United Kingdom, has been supporting a recent trend for university education provision to be assessed on the basis of the employability of graduates. He has even suggested that work experience during the period of study would benefit all students, especially those in humanities where numbers have been dropping. Does education always have to be linked with employment? Many people go for higher education not being clear about what they want to focus on in life, others want to have a broader view before they focus on a particular aspect of work and many, especially a significant number of mature students, want education to add to their experiences and values, previously narrowed down by family and employment restrictions.

Internationalisation has resulted in many changes in higher education, such as the movement of students to universities in other countries to get qualifications that would equip them for a particular level of job and status in their own country or elsewhere, the establishment of overseas campuses especially by universities in the West, and the introduction of procedures and regulations to establish comparability in standards. In the different approaches for quality control and maintenance, very little is said about the value in terms of knowledge what the universities are teaching. If globally higher education becomes too closely linked with business, employability and technology, there may not be space for the objective dialogue and reflection that Oz believes is so critical for the future.

The Creation of UNESCO and the NEF

Hiroshi Iwama

This paper was presented at the 40th International Conference of World Education Fellowship at the University of Tasmania in Launceston, Australia, December 29, 1998 – January 4, 1999.

World Education Fellowship (WEF) is one of the international non-governmental organizations affiliated with UNESCO. It was initially named the NEF, or the New Education Fellowship up until 1966. Not many people know that the NEF played a vital role in the creation of UNESCO, or the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, from the last phase of World War II through the after-war months. The late Dr. Sumie Kobayashi, Professor of Keio University, committed himself to the NEF Japan Section not only as a director in its early days, but also as a President after the NEF Japan Section resumed its activities after World War II. In 1957, Professor Kobayashi stated in his opening speech at the New World Conference held at the Chiyoda Civic Hall, Tokyo, as follows:

The NEF has, throughout its history of more than 30 years, always been pushing ahead with education for global understanding in close cooperation with the new education movement in the rest of the world, seeking to contribute to world peace and happiness. While the NEF's request for the formation of an international bureau of education was not answered by the League of Nations, some of its members were instrumental in creating the International Bureau of Education in Geneva, and played a vital role in the creation of UNESCO. (Kobayashi, 1957, 2) (Note).

The author would like to verify Prof. Kobayashi's statement first, and then explore the spirit of UNESCO in relation to the establishment of the NEF.

The NEF as a Parent Body of UNESCO

The War of 1914-18 led to a growing sense of world unity that found expression in a wide variety of international associations including those concerned with education. In the United States, the Progressive Education Association was formed in 1918. The League of Nations was created in 1919. It was against this backdrop that the New Education Fellowship was established in 1921, in an effort to lay the groundwork for world peace by fostering the child's creativity. (Boyd, 1965, p.57, Yamazaki, 1986, p.71) People gathered under the banner of the NEF, sharing the same aim to realize educational reform by collaborating beyond the framework of race, religion, and nationality.

When the League of Nations was formed in 1919, the International Labor Organization (ILO) was also created as an autonomous institution to cooperate with the League of Nations. Inspired by this new

organization, educationists started a movement to institute an international education office, similar to the ILO. In 1921, the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation was formed under the League of Nations, with Dr. Inazo Nitobe as the secretary general, and its membership included prominent men and women scholars of the day such as Bergson, Marie Curie, and Einstein. International cooperation in academic and educational work was thus materialized. One of the Committee's first jobs was to reform the biased contents of geography and history textbooks for elementary school children. (Hiratsuka, 1985, p.382)

Geneva was a foothold of international organizations such as the League of Nations and the International Red Cross (which was established in 1919). There were also the Bureau International des Ecoles Nouvelles created by the new educationist and theorist A. Ferriere in 1899, and the Institut Jean Jacques Rousseau, a research center of pedagogy and educational psychology established in 1912 to celebrate the 200th anniversary of Rousseau's birth. On the basis of these two educational organizations, the International Bureau of Education was created in 1925. This Bureau was designed to support information exchange and mutual assistance among new education schools across the world, and was surely in the front line of international education. The Bureau, however, remained an affiliated organization of the League of the Nations. (Kobayashi, 1959, p.348). It is worth noticing that the major members of the Bureau, such as Claparets, Bovet, Ferriere, Piaget, and Rotten, were all actively working for the NEF, too (Iwama, 1998, pp.8-10)

This sentiment for world cooperation, however, was drowned out by the roaring storm of World War II. Actually, when the war broke out, the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation had to totally stop its operations (Hiratsuka, 1985, p.382) However, on one occasion during World War II, the government officials from allied countries gathered in London and discussed post-war rehabilitation. It was none other than the NEF that took advantage of this good opportunity and lobbied for the creation of an international educational and cultural office for world peace. (Iwama, 1998, pp.8-13). Specifically, under the sponsorship of the British government, a meeting of defecting ministers of education was convened in 1942 in London. The agenda there included educational assistance to the war-victim children, reconstruction of war-damaged educational institutions, and the necessity for international cooperation in education and culture. The Conference

of Allied Ministers of Education held in 1944, with a representative from the United States, urged the need for an international organization to help restore educational and cultural facilities. From April through June 1945, representatives of allied countries gathered in San Francisco and adopted the United Nations Charter. Around the same time, the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education was held in London where the creation of an international organization for education and culture was discussed in earnest. The Constitution of UNESCO was adopted in the following November. (Sagara, 1964, pp.7-8)

The NEF members who played a leading role in the creation of UNESCO included Sir Fred Clarke from the United Kingdom, Dr. Wallon from France, Dr. Drzewiski from Poland, and Dr. Kefauver from the United States. In addition, Joseph A. Lauwerys, a Professor of London University and the deputy chairman of the NEF, took office in 1943 as chairman of the special issue committee, Conference of Allied Ministers of Education. In 1945, Professor Lauwerys was assigned a job in charge of the Investigation Committee of the Conference, and then became an adviser of the newly established UNESCO from 1946 through 1948 (Hiratsuka Masunori, 1907, p.81), a friend of Professor Lauwerys and once a director of UNESCO's education division, states, as a first-hand witness whom the Professor confided in, that the first part of the UNESCO Constitution was written by Professor Lauwerys "as an indispensable part". (Hiratsuka, 1985, p.41; 1980, p.49) It is generally believed that Mr. Attlee, then Prime Minister of Britain, drew up the draft preamble, but actually it was probably Professor Lauwerys who wrote the draft.

The NEF was able to work as a leader for the creation of UNESCO, because of the following reasons:

1. It was a major international organization bent on educational reform;
2. It drew people from all over the world regardless of race, nationality, and religion, and aimed at making a peaceful world through educational reform.
3. Its headquarters was located in London, and was able to have a direct influence over the ministers of education from the allied nations.

The Theosophical Fraternity in Education as a Parent Body of the NEF

The author has explored the history of UNESCO and found that the NEF was an international organization of alliance for the new education and played an important part in the creation of UNESCO. The NEF was needed by the post-war society where there was a growing sentiment for international cooperation and world peace. A further investigation

into the birth of the NEF, however, has revealed that the Theosophical Society and the Theosophical Fraternity in Education were deeply involved in the formation of the NEF. The author would like to summarize the relationship between the Theosophical Fraternity in Education and the NEF.

What is the Theosophical Society?

Theosophy is made up etymologically of Theos (God) and Sophia (wisdom). *Theosophy is religion-oriented, and inspiration, rather than knowledge, is used as a means to achieve a mystic integration with God, and thus to understand the nature of God. The ideas of Plotinos and Buddha are classified under this realm. Philosophical theosophy includes Neo-Platonism, the Gnostic, Eriugena, and Jacob Bohme.* (Shimonaka, 1966, pp.637-8).

E.P. Blavatsky, 1831, p.91, the founder of modern theosophy, states as follows about theosophy Blavatsky, 1889, p.39: *Theosophy is not a religion. It is a sacred knowledge or sacred holy science. The Society's motto is 'Truth is the best religion'. The major aim of the eclectic theosophical group is to coordinate all religions, religious groups and nations under a common ethical system that is based on everlasting truth.* The purposes of the Theosophical Society are as follows:

1. To form the nucleus of a universal brotherhood, regardless of race, color, and religion;
2. To promote the study of Aryan and other Eastern literature, religions, and sciences, and to verify the importance of Brahman, Buddhism, and Zoroastrianism philosophy;
3. To investigate the unfamiliar laws of nature, and the psychic and spiritual faculties latent in man from as many aspects as possible.

Theosophy and the Theosophical Society thus acknowledge divinity in human race, and regard all men as brothers and sisters regardless of race and color. It has a cosmopolitan outlook that is consistent with the idea of international cooperation. Let me explain other characteristics. Theosophists believe in the principle of rebirth, that life is infinite and men repeatedly enter into and exit from this world during the evolution process, until they have learned everything in life. They acknowledge the existence of supermen and the enlightened, who have reached a certain level of evolution, and have thus won liberation from the binding self and graduated from the school named life. Theosophists aim at living a highly ethical life by training themselves. High priority is put on the nature of the inner-self, including purity of heart, love, nobility, justice, fairness, generosity, and sincerity. Whatever a man thinks and however he acts, it eventually impacts the universe, and he has to reap

the result of his own deeds. This is called the principle of karma.

Elena Blavatsky, a Russian theorist, travelled for 20 years in the Middle East, North and South America, and the whole area of Asia in search of 'hidden wisdom'. She spent seven years in Tibet under a Great Indian Master, who gave her not only esoteric secrets but practical instructions as well. These experiences led her to establish the Theosophical Society in New York with Colonel H. S. Olcott and others in 1875, which made a significant impact on many philosophers and artists. The Theosophical Society moved its headquarters to Madras, India in 1882, and became a corporate body in 1950.

The Creation of the Theosophical Fraternity in Education

Blavatsky, (1889, pp.270-1), criticized in her book **The Key to Theosophy** the fact that modern education put too much emphasis on mechanical memorization, which only helps produce heartless and selfish men. She states that theosophical schools should be designed to nurture children's inner self and latent ability, aiming at creating men and women who are free in terms of intellect and spirit, free from discrimination at all levels, and particularly free from selfishness (Blavatsky, 1889, pp. 270-1).

After Blavatsky died in 1891, successive leaders of the Theosophical Society, including the first chairman Henry Olcott (1832-1907), and the second chairman Annie Besant (1874-1933), committed themselves to education, and established the Central Hindu College in 1898. Annie Besant successfully headed the strike by women workers at a match factory, and was called *one of the major leaders in the English labor movement in the 1880s* (Tomiya, 1929, p.16). Besant was a woman of action and social reform advocate, and shortly before becoming a member of the Society, she ran for election to the Education Board in her hometown of London. As a candidate, she called for fair education measures including "high-level education for poor children" and "free school lunch for hungry children", and won the largest share of the votes. After entrance to the Society, she formed the Indian Autonomous Alliance in 1916, and became a chairman of the Indian National Congress in 1917. In other words, *she worked for improving welfare in India in the areas of education, society, religion, and politics* (Lutyens, 1979, p.14). It was under Besant's governance that theosophical schools were started one after another in various parts of the world, ultimately resulting in the creation of the Theosophical Fraternity in Education.

Beatrice Ensor (1885-1974), whose maiden name was Beatrice de Norman, made a significant practical contribution to the creation of the Theosophical Fraternity in Education. She became a member of the Theosophical Society in her twenties, was appointed the first woman inspector by the English Board of

Education at the age of 25, and saw the realities of many schools with her own eyes. Ensor was moved by the teaching method of Homer Lane, and by **What is and What might be** by Edmond Holmes. Homer Lane was an American who had come to England to lead the youth agricultural cooperation movement "Little Commonwealth", while Edmond Holmes was a long-time Board of Education Inspector. These men's works gave her an idea of forming within the Theosophical Society a group of progressive teachers. (Boyd and Rawson, 1965, p.67).

With the help of George Arundale, a well-known educator and ex-education minister who worked once as a principal of the Central Hindu College in Varanasi, Ensor established the Theosophical Fraternity in Education in 1915, within the Theosophical Society. G.S. Arundale took office as president and Ensor as secretary. Based on the Theosophical Society's popularity throughout the world, the Fraternity had an international outlook with sections located in England, France, Belgium, Switzerland, India, Australia, and New Zealand. The aim of the Fraternity, which was based on that of the Theosophical Society, was twofold: first, the linking of pioneers in private and state schools throughout the world, and second, education for peace. It would mean substituting cooperation for competition, discipline from within for discipline from without; cultivating the power to think for oneself instead of being swayed by mass emotion, and stressing spiritual development instead of ambitions of a material kind. (Boyd and Rawson, 1965, p.60).

Norman resigned from the Board of Education in order to give all her time to the Theosophical Fraternity in Education, married Captain Robert Ensor, and resided in Letchworth. Many theosophists lived in this rural city of Letchworth, located halfway between London and Cambridge, which was designed to be an ideal city, or a modern Utopia. Ensor became Director of the Theosophical Fraternity in Education, which continued to expand rapidly. When the membership surpassed 500, the Fraternity published its own journal **Education for the New Era** in January 1920 under Ensor's lead. The first Fraternity conference was also convened in this year in Letchworth. In the meantime, Ensor's role as Director increasingly became important and indispensable for the Fraternity. She also took office as Director of St. Christopher School that was built by the Theosophical Society in Letchworth. (Snell, 1925, p.52, Yamazaki, 1996, p.23)

Events unfolded rapidly. During the Letchworth conference, it was proposed that an international body be created for the promotion of world peace through education, and that a general meeting of the New Educationists be held somewhere in France in 1921. It was agreed that the new body should be beyond the framework of the Theosophical Society, and that the Society should keep in the background. The first **New Era** international conference was held in Calais, France, from July 30 through August 12, with the theme

The Creative Self-Expression of the Child. It was the first occasion that people of different nationalities with varying views of educational reforms and religions had come together for spirited discussions and shared a sense of alliance.

This New Era international conference owed its success much to the omnipresent members of the Theosophical Society. Many participants came from outside of Europe; India and Australia, where the theosophical movement was flourishing. The New Education Fellowship inherited its principles and aims from the Theosophical Society and the Theosophical Fraternity in Education. For example, the Principles of the NEF drafted by Ensor consisted of “supremacy of the spirit”, “discipline”, “the child’s interests and individuality”, “autonomy”, “collaboration”, “co-education”, and “human dignity”. Almost all the draft Principles were approved without amendment, and thus retained much of the characteristics of the Theosophical Society (Iwama, 1996).

Conclusion

The author first verified the statement by Prof. Sumie Kobayashi, the former president of the WEF Japan Section, that the NEF worked as a midwife at the creation of UNESCO. Then, the author further investigated the background history. As a result, it was found that the NEF was surely one of the major parent bodies of UNESCO, alongside the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation under the League of Nations and its affiliated body, the International Bureau d’Education, against the backdrop of the after-war sentiment for world peace and global cooperation.

Why could the NEF play an important part in the creation of UNESCO? The answer lies in the following characteristics of the NEF: the NEF was from its beginning an educational organization of the new educationists with an international outlook; its headquarters was conveniently located in London, and was able to exercise its influence over the Conference of Allied Ministers; and the NEF aimed at making the world a peaceful place through education.

Actually the NEF inherited these characteristics from the Theosophical Society and the Theosophical Fraternity in Education, both of which were operating actively in those days. Their basic principles were extremely progressive: that all religions, religious sects, race, and cultures of the world originated from only one source, and therefore all people are brothers and sisters. This spirit of peace upheld by the Theosophical Society is in accordance with the UNESCO Constitution, which proclaims:

Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed.

The prototype of international education that came into blossom with the creation of UNESCO was already in bud nearly eighty years ago.

[Space does not permit a discussion of Montessori and her educational method, or their close linkage with the Theosophical Society and the NEF. For those who are interested, he would like to recommend reading his thesis, **An Investigation into the Origins of UNESCO**].

NOTE: Professor Kobayashi (1959) repeated this view in Introduction, Chapter 1: Shin Kyoiku-undo no Tembo (Prospect of the New Education Movement), **Sekai no Kyoiku 2: Sekai no Kyoiku-undo** (World Education 2: World Education Movement). (Kobayashi, p 18).

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Teaching Reading Skills to Students with Learning Disabilities

Selena Velarde

Introduction

Special education teachers are often faced with the difficult task of teaching reading to students with learning disabilities whose reading skills are far below their grade level. Reading is an active process that involves analyzing words, comprehending text, and expressing one’s ideas. Unfortunately, the ability to read affects a student’s success in other academic areas such as social studies, history, and science. Teachers may discover that they need to implement a variety of instructional methods to help their students achieve in reading.

Students with learning disabilities often exhibit difficulties related to reading (Rankhorn, England, Collins, Lockavitch, and Algozzine, 1998). Therefore, teachers should be aware of the common characteristics of students with learning disabilities and methods of reading instruction. These students often manifest problems related to memory and language. Memory problems may result in poor comprehension and phonetic skills. Language difficulties may result in underdeveloped vocabulary skills (Bos and Vaughn, 1998). Thus, students with learning disabilities often have problems remembering information and expressing their ideas.

The purpose of this article is to describe six strategies that may be implemented by the classroom teacher to improve the reading skills of students with learning disabilities. It is assumed that the instructional challenge is to develop comprehension, research, and

word recognition skills. For each strategy, a rationale is addressed and represented with an example that may be applied to any reading curriculum.

Strategy 1: To improve a student’s ability to identify a character motive in a narrative story through teacher demonstrations.

Rationale: Students with learning disabilities have difficulties identifying character motives while reading narrative stories. Character motives are the reasons behind a character’s actions. The ability to identify a character motive is a critical comprehension skill. Students are usually able to master a new skill if it is demonstrated by the teacher (Rabren, Darch, and Eaves, 1999).

Example: Students would be assigned to identify the character motives in three different fables. First, the teacher would provide a clear definition of character motives. The definition should be followed by a demonstration by the teacher. For example, the teacher would read “Goldilocks and the Three Bears” to the students. Then, the teacher would identify Goldilocks’ motive for selecting the baby bear’s bed to sleep in and porridge to eat. During his/her demonstration, the teacher should divide the character motive identification process into small steps.

Next, the students would identify the character motives in each fable by completing each step demonstrated by the teacher. The teacher should provide immediate feedback to his/her students. If a student makes an error, the teacher should give an

individualized demonstration of the step. The students should not continue to a new step until the previous step is mastered.

Strategy 2: To use story readings as a method to improve a student's reading ability.

Rationale: Teachers may implement story readings to their curriculum that are relevant to the student's reading ability. With younger students, a teacher may use big books during story readings. During these reading experiences, the teacher is able to model the reading process. The use of big books enables all of the students to view the print. The students may be able to read with the teacher, especially if the book contains rhymes and repetitions. This type of involvement builds the students' confidence as readers (Campbell, 1995).

While working with older students, a teacher may have story readings with individual students. Prior to reading, the teacher should assist the students in selecting books that are relative to the students' interests and appropriate for their ability levels. During these reading experiences, the teacher and student may each read different passages in a book. This enables the teacher to model appropriate reading behavior (Campbell, 1995). While the student is reading, the teacher should observe the student's strengths and needs as a reader. The information gained from these observations will assist the teacher in selecting appropriate instructional modifications.

Example: The teacher should select a book that is appropriate for the students in his/her class. Since the students will present a variety of reading ability levels, the book selection process must be one of great care. After a book is selected, the teacher should begin reading the book to the students.

To support students' development as readers, the teacher should provide the students with opportunities to respond to the content of the story. The teacher may encourage the students to focus on the content by asking relative explicit and/or implicit questions. For example, the teacher may ask "What qualities do you and the main character have in common?" or "What might happen later in the story?" The teacher may present these questions prior to reading the story to provide the students with a task while listening to the story. These types of questions will also encourage the students to think about the story.

Strategy 3: To use collaborative groups as a tool to improve student's skills and attitudes toward research.

Rationale: By assigning collaborative research projects, teachers may improve students' attitudes toward research. Students may have different strengths and weaknesses in completing research. While working in collaborative groups, students may take advantage of their individual strengths by distributing the work among the members. Another advantage of using collaborative groups is that the students share a common goal of collecting information related to a

specific topic. Finally, each member of the group can contribute a different part of the project presentation (Rekrut, 1997).

Example: The teacher would introduce the topic of "America in the 1960s" to his/her students. Then, the teacher would lead the students in brainstorming a list of important people and events related to the 1960s such as John F. Kennedy, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr./the Civil Rights Movement, Woodstock, NASA/man's conquest into space, and the Vietnam War. The final list should include approximately eight items. Next, the students should be placed in different groups depending on their interests.

Each group would be assigned to complete a collaborative project on their person or event. While planning groups, the teacher should consider the different strengths that each student may contribute to his/her group. To assist the groups, the teacher should provide several books related to each topic. These books may include yearbooks, encyclopedias, and biographies. The teacher should select books that are appropriate for different reading ability levels.

To begin the research process, each student should select one or two books related to their topic. The teacher should verify that each student selects books that are appropriate for his/her reading ability level. While reading the books, the students should select facts that are interesting. Next, the teacher may provide opportunities for the students to transform these facts into notetaking outlines and/or flow charts. This notetaking instruction, like all instruction, should include teacher modeling, opportunities for student practice, and immediate feedback.

After the students finish reading their books, they should divide their facts into different categories. For example, the group assigned to John F. Kennedy may divide their facts into categories such as "the Kennedy family," "life as a president," "Kennedy's assassination." Then, each member of the group should select one category and use the facts to complete a short report. Finally, each group should present their report to the rest of the students.

The teacher may need to make appropriate modifications for students who are unable to categorize their facts. These modifications may involve the teacher in providing categorical headings. Then, the students should be assigned to place their facts under the appropriate headings.

Strategy 4: To help students develop word recognition and comprehension skills through reading controlled passages.

Rationale: Students often have problems in reading due to complicated sentence structures and complex language. These writing elements create feelings of frustration and confusion among emergent readers (Rankhorn, England, Collins, Lockavitch, and Algozzine, 1998). Unfortunately, these initial feelings of uneasiness toward reading may lead to serious academic problems.

To avoid difficulties in reading, teachers should offer their students reading passages that contain simple sentence structures and repetitive vocabulary. The use of these elements will enable students to read materials that are appropriate for their grade-levels (Rankhorn, England, Collins, Lockavitch, and Algozzine, 1998).

Example: While preparing a reading lesson, the teacher should select material that contains simple sentence structures and repetitive vocabulary. The teacher should create lessons that contain multiple steps. First, the students should preview the assigned reading material. The preview may include answering concept questions, making predictions, and reviewing vocabulary words contained in the material. Second, the teacher should read the material to the students. While reading the material, the teacher should focus the students' attention by asking explicit such as "What are the names of the main characters?," and implicit questions such as "What do you think might happen at the end of the story?".

After the teacher introduces the material, the students should read the material. If a student encounters difficulties, the teacher should provide his/her assistance. The final step of the lesson involves reviewing the material. This step may involve a variety of activities such as responding to relative questions and/or participating in a group discussion related to the material.

Strategy 5: To help students overcome reading difficulties through school-wide peer tutoring.

Rationale: Students are often unable to receive individualized instruction from their teachers, because there may be several students with reading difficulties in one classroom. Through peer tutoring, students who have low reading abilities can receive individualized assistance. During tutoring sessions, both the tutors and tutees can practice and improve their reading skills. In addition, the students can develop their social skills through interacting with peers (Revill, Horne, and Merett, 1997).

Schools may invite all of the classes to participate in peer tutoring by having older students tutor younger students. School-wide peer tutoring gives students of different ages the opportunity to work with one another (Revill, Horne, and Merett, 1997).

Example: For each tutoring session the teacher should select a book that would be appropriate for the tutee's reading ability level. A copy of the selected book and a list of questions about the story should be given to the tutor. The tutoring sessions should take place in a quiet area of the school such as the library.

Prior to each session, the tutor should be provided with a summary of the reading materials. The summary should include the names of the main characters and the important events that take place in the story.

At the beginning of each session the tutor should present the selected book to the tutee. During this presentation, the tutee should study the cover and

quickly look through the book. Then, the tutor should ask the tutee to answer concept questions such as "What was the main character's favorite activity?," and make predictions about the story based on his/her preview of the book. Predictions may be made by looking at the pictures contained in the story or scanning the titles of the chapters. Next, the tutor should invite the tutee to begin reading the book. While the tutee is reading, the tutor should record words that appear to cause difficulties. The sentences containing the tutee's miscues should be recorded in a journal. It is important to establish if the miscues led to ungrammatical sentences or changes in the author's intended meaning. The tutee should review his/her miscues throughout the week. At the end of the tutoring session, the tutor should ask the tutee to answer comprehension questions related to the book.

After each session, the tutor should report to the tutee's classroom teacher to complete a final analysis record of the student's progress. This record may include a list of the student's oral miscues and the amount of explicit and implicit comprehension question that the student answered correctly.

Strategy 6: To use a combination of the whole language approach and analytical approach to reading instruction to improve student's word recognition skills.

Rationale: Teachers have used a variety of approaches to teach reading to young students. Two instructional approaches are the whole language approach and analytical approach. The whole language approach involves students in reading different types of literature. If the student does not recognize a word, he/she should review the context surrounding the word. The analytical approach involves the students in learning specific grapheme/phoneme relationships to identify words.

Teacher's selected methods of instruction are often influenced by the instructional goals emphasized in the school's reading program and the type of behavior the teacher believes is conducive to reading achievement (Vacca, Vacca, and Grove, 1995). Unfortunately, individual students require specific instructional methods to learn how to read. Teachers should not teach their students as a group. Instead, they should teach individual students (Ediger, 1998).

Example: The teacher should distribute a worksheet containing a cloze passage and a word bank of terms to complete the passage (see Figure 1).

To complete the worksheet, the students will apply skills related to both the analytical approach and whole language approach to reading. First, the students will orally read the words contained in the word bank. This activity will require the students to recognize the grapheme/phoneme relationships contained in the words. Next, the students will read the cloze passage and write the correct words in the spaces. Finally, the students will orally read the completed passage.

Figure 1: Worksheet for use in an activity combining the whole language approach and analytical approach to reading instruction.

Word Bank

write	zoo	animal	monkeys
for	report	inside	was
cave	bats	his	Miss
hanging	entrance	and	by

Mary and Jamie’s class fourth grade class was going on a field trip to a zoo. Miss Johnson, their teacher, told her students to bring a notebook ____ a pencil with them on the trip. She wanted them to _____ a short report about an animal at the zoo.

When the class arrived at the _____, Mrs. Johnson told her students to meet at the entrance of the zoo in two hours. Mary and Jamie walked around the zoo and looked for an interesting _____ for their reports. Mary decided to write about the monkeys because she liked watching them play in their cage. While Mary was looking at the _____, Jamie decided to walk around the zoo ____ himself.

Jamie looked around the zoo _____ almost one hour, but he still could not find an interesting animal for his _____. Suddenly, he saw a sign that said “Welcome to the Cave of the Bats.” Although Jamie was a little scared, he decided to go _____ the cave.

At first, Jamie was scared because it was very quiet inside the _____. He was also confused because he did not see any _____. Eventually, Jamie looked up and he saw four bats _____ upside down. Jamie decided that he was going to write his report about bats. He quickly wrote notes about the bats because it _____ almost time to leave.

Jamie and Mary returned to the _____ of the zoo to meet Miss Johnson. _____ Johnson told the students that they could finish their reports when they returned to school. Jamie was very excited to write _____ report about the interesting bats!

Conclusion

Students with learning disabilities often experience failure in academics due to poor reading skills. The strategies described in this article present various instructional methods that teachers may use to improve the memory and language skills of their students. Many of the strategies may be used with narrative and expository text. Therefore, teachers may choose to adapt the strategies to various academic areas such as science and history. Although there are no definite solutions to improving the reading skills of students with learning disabilities, these six strategies may influence teachers to implement different methods of reading instruction in their classrooms.

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Thinking Globally and Acting Locally

Pramila N Kudva

Introduction

About two million years ago, when humans changed from hunter-gatherers, who lived in the wilderness systems such as forests and grasslands, into agriculturalists or pastoralists, they began to change the environment to suit their requirements. Their ability to grow food and breed domestic animals led to a change of the 'natural systems' into 'productive' ones.

The natural resources of an eco-system form a capital that needs to be maintained in order that the 'interest' accrued could be used sustainably over a period of time. However, the needs of a huge number of human beings could not be supported by these productive natural resources.

Increasing extraction of resources beyond a critical level depletes the 'capital' and has been found to affect the quality of life. So in order to bring about the change we must be the catalysts. No one is an island. The damage caused to the environment in one corner of the world has its repercussions elsewhere. The phenomenon of acid rain is a case in point.

Thus the responsibility for the global environment lies with each and every individual. Therefore one has to think globally and locally. Humans are more than biological beings. A civilised person requires more things for comfort and safety than any other organism. Therefore humans have developed the socio-cultural environment in addition to the natural environment. In view of this, humans' environment comprises the natural as well as socio-cultural aspects.

Natural Environment

The natural environment consists of physical or abiotic factors and the biological or biotic factors.

Socio-cultural Environment

The socio-cultural environment is developed through skills of humans and the various social institutions. This environment differs from other man-made paraphernalia like bridges, roads, cities, transport and such other. The socio-cultural environment comprises the following components:

Family, marriage and kinship. Family is a unit of community having a bond arising out of marriage. The system and norms of marriage vary from community to community. The Nair community of Kerala is a warrior community where the men-folk would be at war and this is one of the reasons that has led to the development of the matriarchal family.

Religion. Religion comprises a set of beliefs concerning the cause, nature and purpose of the universe, especially when it is considered to be

the creation of some super human agency/agencies. Religion very often exercises a social control on the community.

Economy. Biologically man is not a producer, but culturally he is. He produces goods through his skills, using the relevant tools and technology.

Polity. This refers to the evolution and structure of the government and the state and their activities like law-making and law enforcing within a particular jurisdiction.

History. History of the country influences the present and, perhaps, the future. It is a strong factor in determining the norms, emotions and attitudes.

Art and aesthetics. Drawing, painting, architecture and dance are unique to given communities.

Entertainment. Different types of sports and games are important components of a man's environment.

Environmental Education

Winston Churchill said *We shape our dwellings and then our dwellings shape us*. Before the changed environment can alter or affect the very nature of our existence, the destruction of the environment is to be halted. The most effective way of spreading this message is through the medium of education. The cause of environmental education, therefore, has to be taken up with a crusading spirit and a missionary zeal.

Environmental education should view the environment in its totality - natural and socio-cultural. It should focus on current and potential environmental situations while taking into consideration the historical perspective. This education should become an integral part of the life-long process beginning at pre-school level and continuing through formal and non-formal stages.

In view of this, the integration of environmental education becomes a matter of prime importance for teacher trainees. Integration of the environmental education through the school subjects helps the students to acquire the knowledge that may help to perceive the environment as an integral whole, both natural and man-made, with respect to the physical, biological, social, economic, political and cultural aspects.

In India, environmental awareness dates back to the fourteenth century in Rajasthan. The Bishnois are a small tribe in Rajasthan, who practice a religion of environmental conservation. They believe that cutting a tree or killing an animal or bird is blasphemy. Their religion, an offshoot of Hinduism, was founded by their Guru Maharaj Jambhaji, who was born in 1451. He gave 29 injunctions: principal among them being a ban on the cutting of green trees and killing of an animal or bird.

In the seventeenth century, during Aurangzeb's time, a king of Jodhpur wanted to build a new palace. He sent soldiers to the Bishnoi area where the trees were in abundance. The soldiers wanted to cut the trees for some firewood. The women protested but the soldiers paid no heed. The Bishnois, led by a woman, hugged the trees in order to protect them. 294 men and 69 women were axed to death. When the king heard of this massacre he stopped the operation and offered protection to the Bishnois. The sacrifice of the Bishnois was the inspiration for the Chipko Movement.

In March 1973, in the town of Gopeshwar in Chamoli district [UP], villagers formed a human chain and hugged the earmarked trees to keep them from being killed for a nearby factory producing sports equipment. The genesis of 'Chipko movement' is not only in the ecological, or economic background, but in religious belief. These people believed that each tree has a 'vrikshadevta' [tree god], and the deity 'Vandevi' will protect their family. They also believe that each green tree is the home of the abode of Almighty God Hari. The pipal tree *Ficus religiosa* is revered by Hindus. The Buddhists worship it as the 'Bodh' tree. To fell it is considered a sin. Like the pipal, the banyan is also considered holy by the Hindus. When both these trees are planted along with the third tree 'pakar' - *Ficus infectoria* - the group is known as Harshankari - the abode of Lord Shiva and Hari. These trees are huge and shady and nest hundreds of birds. Also these trees are associated with 'Vrikshadevta'.

Mythological stories

Lord Buddha once told his disciples a story about a 'sal' tree. The story goes thus: Long ago Brahmadatta, the king of Kashi, wanted to build a great palace for himself. A palace whose roof is supported by a single beam/column. So he ordered his architects to search through the forest for a tree that could be shaped into this mighty axis. These king's men found a 'sal' tree in the royal park. This tree had taken root long before Brahmadatta's ancestors had come to rule Kashi. The king commanded his men to cut down the tree. The heart of the ancient god who lived in the tree grew heavy with sorrow. He appeared before the king in his dream. The pleas of the god fell on deaf ears. Then the spirit of the tree requested, 'If you must destroy me, back off my crown first, then hew at my trunk and finally rip me off the earth-harbour by the roots'. The king was amazed by the spirit's request. He asked

why he had chosen to suffer the agonies of amputation in stages. The spirit replied, 'My weight would crash down upon the young 'sal' trees, who have a long life ahead of them. The birds who have made these trees their abode would lose their nests and their young ones'. The king realized his mistake and swore never again to cut down a tree for his pleasure.

Indo-Aryans lived in perfect harmony with nature and worshipped forces of nature like *Agni*, *Vayu*, *Prithvi*, *Akash* and *Varun* which they referred to as the '*panch mahabhootas*'. Both in the pre-vedic and vedic periods, the Aryans sang hymns in praise of nature. How Bhageerath brought the pure Ganga to the earth to get *moksha* for the sixty thousand sons of Sagara is a mythology with which we are familiar. Savitri cornered Yamadharma in a verbal battle and brought her husband back to life indicating that the women of those times were educated and wise.

Since the ancient Indian economy was agrarian, it is not surprising that the Indian peasant considered the 'naga' as a 'guardian of the field' or the *Kshetrapala*. On the other hand, when the seasonal rains flush them out of their burrows, they can be a deadly threat to human beings. This is perhaps why *Nagapanchami* is celebrated on the fifth day of Shravan wherein Hindu women propitiate cobra by offerings.

Noah was asked by God to prepare a boat and take with him all his sons and their wives along with the male and female species of all living things clearly indicating emphasis on the interdependence of the species.

Prophet Ibrahim was asked by God to leave his wife Hajra and infant son in the desert of Mecca. The infant son was thirsty and kept rubbing his heels on the desert sands which led to the formation of a spring of water. Hajra fenced the pool of water with stones and ordered the fountain to stop overflowing. This pool called 'Zam-Zam' still supplies water to the holy city of Mecca - an excellent example of conservation of water in the arid desert zone.

The mythological stories abound in such instances if one were to look through them carefully. The word myth is derived from the Greek word *muthos*, which has a range of meanings from word through saying and story to fiction. 'Myth' has existed in every society. It is a basic constituent of human culture. Mythology is a part of the study of religion and every myth fits in the total structure of the life of the society that believes in it. The myth in turn motivates the people to perform certain special ceremonies daily or annually as their lives move through the cycle of the seasons.

Aims of teaching environmental education through mythology

General aims of environmental education through mythology would be:

1. To educate the students on matters and issues relating to the environment.
2. To create an awareness about the environment

- which is changing at a pace that is becoming dangerous for the health and the very survival of humanity. This growing awareness should create a sense of concern leading to commitment and action.
3. To create an awareness about the relevance of mythology in the present context.

The students would have heard some of these stories and infusing the environmental studies through mythology would not only create an awareness about the environmental education but also lead to a critical thinking *vis-a-vis* the relevance of mythological stories in the present context. This integrated approach would also create a scientific attitude among the students, as well as an interest in the cultural heritage of the nation. Therefore, Integration of Environmental Education through mythological stories was taken up by this institution for study.

Training of teachers in the area of environmental education would deal with all the three domains - cognitive, affective and psycho-motor - and link the present with both the past and the future.

Methodology

Environmental education was infused through the multidisciplinary approach using mythological stories mainly at the secondary level. BEd trainees [N=98, 1996-97 batch] planned the lessons based on school subjects [ranging from standards five to ten]. Mythological stories from various religions were used by the teacher trainees to give the lessons . The lessons were given under simulated conditions in any one of the methods chosen and were of a duration of 10-15 minutes. The simulated lessons were planned for two reasons. All the lessons would not lend themselves to be taught through mythology. Secondly, lessons which can be used to teach through mythology may not be available to all the teacher trainees from the practice teaching schools during the practice teaching sessions. In such cases, some of the students may not get an exposure to the technique.

Since these lessons were of a shorter duration, all the objectives that could have been taken in a lesson of regular duration could not be included in the lesson plan. The lessons given by the students were tabulated under the following categories: aspects of environment covered - physical or socio-cultural environment, subject of the lesson and source of mythology.

The number of lessons given by the students in comparison to those who have opted for the particular subject were as follows:

Subjects and lessons

Subject	No of students opting for subject	Lessons given	%
Science	42	39	92.85
History	31	28	90.32
Geography	24	24	100.00
Languages	44	7	15.90

It appears that all the teacher trainees who had opted for the method of geography had given a lesson in their chosen method. A large percentage of student teachers with history and science subjects had chosen their special method for the integration. However, most of the students who had opted for languages gave lessons in the method other than the language subject.

It must be noted at this point that each student had a choice of opting for two subjects and the teacher trainees were told that they could choose any one subject out of their chosen methods for the infusion of environmental education.

The number of lessons according to the subject, type of environment chosen for the subject and also the type of mythology chosen for the infusion were as follows:

Categories of Simulated Lessons

Subject	Envvt Aspect	A	B	C	D	Total	SubjectTotal
Science	Natural	33	4	1	1	39	39
	Socio-cultural	-	-	-	-		
History	Natural	4	-	-	-	4	28
	Socio-cultural	24	-	-	-	24	
Geography	Natural	22	-	1	-	23	24
	Socio-cultural	1	-	-	-	1	
Language	Natural	3	-	1	-	4	7
	Socio-cultural	2	-	1	-	3	
Total		89	4	4	1		98
A - Hindu mythology		B - Mythology from Christianity					
C - Mythology from Buddhism		D - Mythology from Islam					

It appears that more lessons were given on the natural environment than on the socio-cultural environment. The history lessons were mostly based on the socio-cultural component. The language lessons, though very few, were divided between the natural and the socio-cultural component. A large number of lessons were from the Hindu mythology.

Major findings

The students found it difficult to correlate the components of mythology through mathematics. Therefore no lessons were given in the subject of mathematics using this technique by the student trainees. Some of the myths were such that they could be used in different subjects in different contexts. For instance, in Mahabharata, the Pandavas were exiled for 12 years after having lost the kingdom in a game of dice. Arjuna went to the heaven to acquire the *Divya astras* to be used in warfare against Duryodhana. When he returned, the Pandavas were curious to know the strength of the *astras* and requested Arjuna to demonstrate their use. But, just as he was about to use one of the *astras*, the devas stopped him. They said the use of such a powerful weapon just for exhibition or fun was strictly prohibited. The forest reserves could not be targeted for some casual experimentation.

Mythology can be effectively used to integrate the need to use nuclear energy for peaceful purposes in

the subject science as well as history. It can also be used in the teaching of forest wealth under geography. This innovative practice, implemented at our institution, was not without initial teething problems.. The co-teacher educators had to be convinced before student teachers could be exposed to the infusion. The knowledge of mythology among the student teachers was found to be abysmal. Several of them had to be oriented to identify the difference between mythology and folklore. To overcome this hurdle, the college bought some books on mythology and made the students read them.

Conclusion

This exposure of giving lessons made the trainee teachers not only understand the Indian culture through mythology but created an insight into the rich cultural heritage and the sound principles of it. It was a matter of interest to see that the students gave lessons based on mythologies from religions other than their own. They developed a sense of critical appreciation. They felt they would be able to successfully implement this technique in schools if given an opportunity by the heads of the institutions.

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Fewer Rules, More Freedom

Educational institutions in the Netherlands need to have greater freedom of action and fewer administrative duties. This will give them the chance to concentrate on their core tasks and to key in effectively to the needs expressed by society. The Minister of Education, Loek Hermans, recently set out these aims; in doing so, he was taking steps to introduce the process of deregulation which the Cabinet favours. Greater freedom for educational institutions will need to be accompanied by increased responsibility on their part, both towards students and towards society as a whole. The role of the Education Inspectorate will therefore need to be increased, according to Mr Hermans. For its part, the government will continue to bear responsibility for the quality, accessibility and effectiveness of the Dutch education system.

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Education and the Global Future

James Porter

Among the many issues that the **New Era** has explored during most of this century, the role of the school as a democratising and creative institution has always been of key importance. Currently there are many texts that consider effective schooling, teaching methods, curriculum and assessment, management and the use of technology. While recognising the value of such texts, there has been a lack of critical attention to the fundamental reasons for the establishment and maintenance of school education. Pedagogy is deeply influenced by the economic and political environment, particularly at a time of massive change.

In the book entitled **Reschooling for the Global Future** (1999) Porter considers the political and economic framework and argues that the school is under threat and that there is an attempt to neutralise it as an independent institution. Pursuing a deeply flawed free market ideology, leading governments and major international agencies have severely limited the capacity of the school to fulfil the varied functions that are required in a democratic state. This is happening at a time of unprecedented challenge from the forces of globalisation. As signs of global alienation and insecurity multiply, the growing pressure to control and limit education threatens to rob societies of a vital resource for sustaining democracy and for developing the creative and varied responses that will be called for in an increasingly uncertain future.

The received view is that a formal education system is fundamental to success and progress in the modern world. Economically it is charged with the main responsibility for ensuring the success of the nation state as it operates in a highly competitive world market. Politically, it is regarded as essential for the maintenance of an informed and participant democracy, and for the purposes of social control. Socially, education is expected to enable individuals to realise their potential and to live cooperatively and effectively in society. Culturally, it is concerned with what defines humanity, as well as with the idea of the nation.

In the latter part of the twentieth century, national governments have focussed unprecedented attention on education, and public interest has never been stronger. However, as success in the global economy has come to be seen as vital for national survival, the economic purposes of the school have come to dominate the political agenda. In China and South East Asia, reform of the national education systems has been regarded as crucial to economic progress and in the former Soviet Union, fresh education policies have been seen as essential for the survival of the newly independent countries in the marketplace. The World Bank, International Monetary Fund and UN Agencies

increasingly insist that aid and loan packages to developing countries should be tied to the use of education for competitive participation in the global economy. In developed Western democracies, governments have come to see the school as primarily an instrument for economic success.

In China, South East Asia, Eastern Europe, and in many developing countries, the shift to an education policy dominated by economic criteria has been made by governments accustomed to a tradition of central control over schools and in many cases over higher education. However, advanced democracies have tended to regard independent educational institutions as an essential feature of a democratic society. Now, the new economic priorities have resulted in many more advanced democracies imposing external demands on educational institutions. The growing link between economic orthodoxy and political policy has resulted in the development of varied strategies for central control. While the trends have been evident in such countries as the USA, Australia, New Zealand, and the provinces of Canada; it is the United Kingdom and, particularly England, that has emerged as the dominant international example of the transformation of an independent and professionally led education system into one that is dominated and controlled by a highly centralised government bureaucracy. The 'control and command' ideology is growing and the English experience has a powerful influence on education policy in other parts of the world.

Following the collapse of the Berlin Wall the great majority of individual governments around the world have been required to share the ideology of the free market and the associated belief in the abiding importance of competition. All are concerned to ensure that their populations have the necessary skills to meet the challenge of rapidly changing patterns of employment, but for some, the attempts to enforce the theory of the market economy on to the education system goes well beyond the encouragement of greater vocational relevance. There are signs that the common concern with market success will be expressed in an increasingly uniform approach to education, with governments reflecting the extreme policies that have emerged from some of the world's leading economies. While the world has become increasingly unified by the pursuit of commercial success in the market place, it has become even more separated by the rapidly growing gap between rich and poor at both global and national levels. The resulting marginalisation and the associated struggles for recognition and power, make it particularly important to explore the nature of the prevailing economic assumptions that are currently



*James Porter began his career at St. George in the East Secondary Modern School in East London. He met his wife Dymplina at the school and they became members of the New Education Fellowship (later the WEF). He was awarded a Leverhulme Scholarship at the London School of Economics where he studied sociology and economics. This was followed by a postgraduate degree at the London Institute in the sociology of education. He became a teacher educator and later principal of Bulmershe College of Higher Education, Reading. He has worked in many countries as an international consultant in education and development. In 1978 he became Director General of the Commonwealth Institute, London, and presented major international exhibitions, arts and educational programmes from the Caribbean, Africa, Asia and the Pacific. Subsequently he became the first Dean of New Initiatives at the Institute of Education, University of London (1994-95). He is a past Chairman of the WEF and has written widely on teacher education, the role of the teacher and on a range of international issues. His book, **Reschooling and the Global Future: politics, economics and the English experience** was published this year by Symposium Books, Oxford, UK.*

driving political policy towards education and other public services. An analysis of the underlying concept of free market economics shows that the pursuit of unbridled competition is theoretically unsound and particularly damaging when applied to education. The outcome in relation to many social institutions, especially the school, has been a profound loss of the functions that have previously characterised their role.

Ironically, as governments attempt to assert greater control over education, many of the most vital aspects of future life for pupils now in school will be influenced by global rather than national factors. The advance of globalism greatly increases the pace of change and contingency in many aspects of life, and children facing the new millennium will need the intellectual and emotional capability to live securely in an age of unprecedented opportunity and risk. The conditions created by the advance of globalism lead to fresh opportunities for inclusion and participation, as well

as to marginalisation. Above all, globalism has placed a premium on the enhancement of the individuals sense of personal identity and the capacity for creative response. The achievement of such an outcome requires the encouragement of independent and self confident educational institutions in the maelstrom of the globalised economy and the politics of what Anthony Giddens (Giddens 1992) calls 'late modernism'.

Therefore, the sustained attempt by some national governments to control the education system and limit the independence of the schools is deeply mistaken. Only the most flexible and democratic response by decentralised and revitalised schools is likely to provide students with the education the future demands. Schools need the opportunity to critically and reflectively review their teaching and the achievements of their students. To do so, they need to be set broad objectives and the independence and freedom to pursue them.

www.*@online.education**

Amy Otchet

The construction boom in "virtual classrooms" is leading universities to find new partners and competitors in the corporate world

The sleek towers and domed halls of Singapore's Temasek Polytechnic offer the services students dream of - state-of-the-art libraries and data bases, easy course registration, tutorials, study guides, financial advice for tuition and more-all without hours or energy wasted waiting in line. If seeing is believing, why not wander over to the students' centre for a quick visit? A few keystrokes on the Internet and you are there.

Welcome to the world of online education. Students around the globe can enrol in classes like Temasek's, which cover everything from engineering to tourism

and even an introduction to Japanese Katakana characters. Time and distance are no longer an obstacle to learning, as students download specially designed courses according to their own schedules, with tutorials and extra materials available via e-mail, CD-roms and electronic libraries open around the clock. Exams, papers and even private consultations with professors or other students are all done within the comfort of home.

In the last year, virtual classrooms of all shapes and sizes have been under construction around the world, offering very real solutions for universities and training institutes threatened by dwindling public resources and students needing more flexible course materials and

schedules to compete in today's job market. Mexico's Monterey Institute of Technology, for example, is developing online courses and importing them from universities north of the border. Even the World Bank is getting involved with plans for a virtual university in Africa. And while it is natural to find traditional distance education providers such as UK Open University breaking into this new field, prestigious brand-name schools are also investing. Duke University of the United States has proudly opened its "Global Executive MBA" to a hand-picked class of mostly international business people with tuition at \$85,000.

This new distance education is a far cry from the lowly correspondence courses of the past, seen as a "second-chance" for those who don't make it in or have access to regular educational channels. It also presents not just another learning opportunity but a promising new market for telecommunications and computer corporations, vying to provide the "piping-satellite systems, computer platforms for administration or "smart cards" offering access to electronic libraries-to deliver services far and wide. From Germany to Malaysia, telecommunications and computer giants are negotiating "wiring" costs with public and private learning institutions, now seen as new partners for computer companies like Microsoft and Apple.

Consider the case of Western Governors University (WGU) formed in 1997 by a group of governors from the western United States. Convinced that education was failing to meet the needs of employers and students alike, they created a virtual university which distributes services (courses) developed by associated universities and corporate training programmes. The real surprise lies in its National Advisory Board, a powerful mix of state representatives and business leaders from companies like Microsoft, Apple, Sun, Microsystems, IBM and above all AT&T, (one of the world's largest telecommunications companies), which has donated more than \$750,000. With backing like this, the governors are broadening their horizons, moving beyond the local market by brokering co-operative agreements with overseas "suppliers"-university and telecom -in Japan, the United Kingdom, Canada, Mexico and China.

"Globalization is a term that gets used a lot, but just like trade and commerce, education is becoming more and more integrated across national borders," says Reidar Roll of the non-profit International Council for Distance Education (ICDE), which includes learning institutes and corporations in more than 130 countries. "We are beginning to see a more global education market."

Roll doesn't seem to question the rise of this "market"-a battle cry for those who see education as a public responsibility and not a commodity. Yet in this new electronic age of distance education, the fine line between the private and public sectors has been blurred from the start. While universities did much of the

research and development making online learning technologically possible-often with corporate support - it is the private sector which supplies the pieces needed to build the virtual campus.

Even the course content is market-based. Online students are for the most part not looking for philosophy or art history classes but professional training in areas like business management, financial services, English, information technologies, teaching and health sciences.

In short, the incredible potential for online learning lies in the insecurity of today's job market as the ever-shortening shelf-life of knowledge forces the "professionally fit" to continually upgrade their skills. In Finland, for example, 45% of employed adults between the ages of 25 to 64 take part in some form of career-related continuing education and training during a year, according to a 1997 survey by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development alliances (OECD). Even Canada's low rate of 28 percent still represents considerable demand.

"People want to acquire the skills that are applicable and enhance their mobility," says John Mallea, a Canadian expert in the field and consultant for the OECD. "In Eastern and Central Europe, professionals are studying international trade, European law, financial services, computer training and English in numbers we haven't seen before. Until last year's currency crisis, Asia was a huge growth area, with more than 50 MBA programmes being offered in Hong Kong alone, many by distance means."

At the same time, regional trade agreements in North America, Europe and Southeast Asia are opening the door to free trade in educational services, particularly in professional training, which is considered less sensitive than primary or secondary schooling in terms of national autonomy. "Education is considered a service like any other," says a legal officer of the World Trade Organization, who points out that 30 countries from Ghana to Norway and Rwanda, have signed on to the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) with specific commitments assuring foreign providers fair access to their educational markets.

A new market in grey matter

For better or worse, free trade in online education is still far from a reality. A battery of barriers or buffers-depending on your point of view-is firmly in place. To begin with, academic accreditation systems are still the preserve of national authorities and so vary greatly from one country to the next. The lack of technological standards is another obstacle in delivering education from one country or region to another.

At the same time, financial questions remain on issues like taxation and intellectual property. For example, should an Australian company pay local revenue taxes for courses sold in Malaysia? Or consider the case of Mexican students attending a Canadian

university. They usually pay higher admission fees than local tax-paying students. Should the same rules apply to their online compatriots? Finally, how can teachers protect their intellectual property rights on courses and materials beamed around the world?

A long list of task forces and forums is working in universities and international organizations to tackle these thorny issues. At the same time, the private sector is more than willing to help, by offering grants, technical advice and other forms of support to ensure a free flow of services.

While it is too soon for any accurate forecasts of the online education market - estimates vary from one to four billion dollars for the year 2000-there are growing fears that companies will eventually take over the role of learning institutes. "If Microsoft wanted to, they could create a university to compete," says Roll of ICDE. "Or if Harvard wanted to, they could enter alliances to offer them (the companies) a brand name on the international market. I think the plans are there."

"Not so fast," says Jim Kuhr, manager of Microsoft's worldwide education activities. "We don't see ourselves as an educational company - we are not experts in curriculum or pedagogy. Our focus has been to work with partners who are specialists in that. But we do have an interest in providing the infrastructure pieces-like network operating systems, share files and e-mail-needed to make distance learning successful."

While Kuhr recognizes brand-name universities as obvious marketing targets, the real heavyweights may lie in developing countries in Asia and Latin America. "The enrolment potential is going up so dramatically that the governments cannot afford to build the brick and mortar campuses to meet the demand. These governments see online learning and other opportunities in the information society as a way to radically move their countries ahead-that is, if they find the initial investment for infrastructure."

In fact, "wiring" is becoming less of a financial burden as telecom prices fall with deregulation. And with the current spate of mergers transforming the industry, new markets like online education are becoming all the more competitive.

AT&T's interest in online education is "multi-layered", according to Marilyn Reznick of the telecom giant's philanthropic foundation. "We have a responsibility to make sure that people can understand the technologies we develop. It is also in our interest to send our philanthropic dollars to universities where we do business, recruit people, train our employees and do our R&D."

"We might also go to a university with which we

have relations and ask, 'are you going to provide the workers we need?' If not, we will help provide the resources to develop that training. But we would never dream of telling them how to teach. We are not competing with them."

A sigh of relief from the ivory towers? "I am not sure that any corporation will tell you their strategy," says Tony Bates, director of the Distance Education and Technology unit of Canada's University of British Columbia. "And if they did, that strategy may change. For instance, we are actually making a profit on some of our online courses. Who knows what will happen once that gets out."

The secret to the university's success lies in cherry-picking and niche-marketing. "To offer a basic microbiology course, we would need some competitive advantage over the rest of the world, like a Nobel Prize winner, which we don't have. But with our contacts in the forestry department, we are offering courses in wood science, for example, in Indonesia and Australia, where there is an emerging regional market in secondary wood products.

"All of this sounds like someone trying to run a business, and I am surprised to find myself liking this role," says Bates. "This is in response to a government which tells us to be less dependent on taxes. This is not an inevitable result of market forces but a political decision."

However, there is a fine line between profit-making and becoming profit-driven. "You have to ask, 'what is the role of a publicly funded college?' says Bates. "It is difficult to justify tax dollars spent on education if the private sector can do the job as well as the public sector. But I think the public needs some independent critique and analysis of the government and private sector policies. Somebody has to have the independence to ask who is benefiting in a society."

"There is also a question of equity. There are areas that you just cannot make money on, like education for the handicapped or social work courses. That is where the government has to step in to ensure that all sectors of society are served as much as possible."

Useful websites:

Temasek: ole.tp.ac.sg

Open University: www.open.ac.uk

Duke University: www.fuqua.duke.edu

WGU: www.westgov.org

ICDE: www.icde.org

Microsoft: www.microsoft.com/edu

Source: **The Unesco Courier** October 1998 pp.14-16.

For and About WEF Members

World Education Fellowship 40th Conference Report

December 30th, 1998 — January 4th, 1999

The World Education Fellowship has a long-term commitment to building the best possible human world. The 40th International Conference focused on how education might contribute to developing individuals who display:

- **Imaginative ways of thinking and knowing**
- **Moral responsibility and concern for the common good.**
- **Care and compassion for others.**
- **Responsibility for the global environment.**

Without implying that literacy, work-force skills and the like are unimportant, the focus of this conference was on how to generate those attributes that might enable individuals to develop their full human potential and create a better 21st Century.

With this aim in view, the organisers put together a five-day programme, in the idyllic setting of Launceston, where some of the leading thinkers of the world interacted with innovative educational practitioners and lay persons from many different countries. In addition to a number of introductory, stimulating addresses, there were presentations of exemplary educational practices, thought-provoking “hypotheticals” and forums.

Attendance

Two hundred and sixty-four delegates from eighteen countries gathered in Launceston, all committed to action in “educating for a better world”.

Professor Shinjo Okuda, the WEF World President, in opening the Conference, reminded us of the fifty-year anniversary of the signing of the “Declaration of Human Rights”. He challenged us to renew our efforts through the Conference to promote human rights education.

Keynote Speakers

Professor Colin Power, Assistant Director-General UNESCO, helped us to extend, and yet sharpen, our vision. He elaborated upon the work of UNESCO globally, while Rupert Maclean, responsible for work in the Asian Pacific region, spoke of the challenges faced by the poorer nations in his sphere of responsibility.

Dr. Edward de Bono declared: “You can analyze the past, but you have to design the future”. He explained how to teach thinking, which was constructive, creative and practical. Max Dumais, from the de Bono Institute in Victoria, *demonstrated* how this thinking process can be assisted, enhanced and enlivened using the latest technology.

Professor Marilyn McMeniman introduced the educational tasks, which engage the vision of a “better world”, by handing control over to imaginative and empathetic learners. She suggested that a teacher is successful if the learner, at the conclusion of a lesson, is more curious than at the beginning.

The Consultants

The four consultants introduced the themes:

- Imaginative ways of thinking and knowing.
- Moral responsibility and concern for the common good
- Care and compassion for others.
- Responsibility for the global environment.

Professor Richard Bawden offered ways of “Learning to lay down the path walking” in his introduction of twenty exemplars which were presented, describing imaginative ways of thinking and knowing.

Dr. Margaret Valadian illustrated that “Teaching with care: Learners will care”. The papers and presentations

Education and the Environment,

Edited by Norman Graves

5 Sections

- General Issues
- Environmental Education and Young Children

- Environmental Education and Curriculum Development
- Teacher Education
- Research and Environmental Education

Published by WEF 1998, £13.75 + postage or £15.75 post free

which followed described this approach in the education of aboriginal children, in conflict resolution and in bringing beliefs into action in the school setting. **Professor Brian Hill** asked: “Education for whose good?” and considered the case for an against moral education, helping us to draw out guidelines for developing moral responsibility and concern for the common good. His witty and provocative Hypothetical Session: “Is moral education immoral?” related issues to hypothetical, yet familiar, situations. Practical examples of values education, inter-cultural communication, programs for citizenship and reconciliation, with contributions on curriculum change, clarified issues and suggested new approaches.

Professor John Fien dealt with global environmental issues in “Reorienting education for a sustainable future”. His presentation drew together the four themes giving clearer direction for action. International examples on inter-cultural and global understanding and innovations in community and school practice challenged us to act in our local situations.

Reflection Groups

Reflection group sessions provided the forum for thinking through the issues and moving into action. On the last day, groups reported their first intended steps in taking their vision forward into a better world. Underlying decisions were: change in attitudes, new insights and the recognition that this international group shared many values in common. They had moved some way from seeing education dominated by “markets, money and machines” to an appreciation of “education nurturing the human spirit”.

Dr. David Woolman (Rhode Is.) presented his discussion group’s summary as follows:

Our group found that the Conference highlighted a cross-cultural need for more attention to ethical education and demonstrated the potential for an inter-cultural consensus on the need to re-focus education to assure a sustainable future for mankind.

We felt that this goal will require a comprehensive reconstruction of education which prepares learners for life in a society that is based on more democratic participation, social equality, economic growth that provides basic needs for all people and conservation of the natural world.

Some current practices that support this transformation include global Studies, Human rights Education, Multi-cultural Education and Peace Education.

However, we also found that the Conference pointed to a need for new efforts, among which were:

- More imaginative teaching, especially in the early years,
- Special care and consideration for inter-cultural sensitivity in all educational programs,
- A need to maintain a caring classroom

environment, without losing the challenges needed to encourage learning,

- Greater emphasis on environmental issues and skills that equip students for ecologically responsible life,
- Teach students thinking skills that enable them to solve problems, respond creatively to change and maintain a holistic approach to challenges of life.
- Encourage new thought about likely long-term future social trends and the kinds of education needed to prepare humans for life in the 21st century.
- Finally, we felt a critical need for practice in understanding the perspectives, conditions and needs of people in other cultures and in recognising the biases and perceptions embedded in one’s own culture which tend to block progress towards mutual liberation:

“If you are here to help me, then you are wasting your time. But if you come because your liberation is bound up in mine, then let us begin” (Lily Walker).

Youth Forum

The WEF Conference in Tasmania has been an important step forward in the process of developing an international Youth Forum. The General Assembly (GA) adopted a motion urging WEF’s Guiding Committee to establish the Youth Forum officially. With respect to this, the meeting of the GA agreed that WEF’s Sections, as well as WEF as a whole, should actively support the work of WEF’s Youth Forum Exploratory Group and include it in its official framework, so that this group, under the supervision of the Steering Committee, can approach persons, sections, organisations and institutions for active, moral and financial support.

The members of the Exploratory Group who attended the conference in Tasmania met many conference delegates who have committed themselves to supporting the development of the Youth Forum. They received enthusiastic reactions to the contributions of members of this group. Several of these contributions were sent to the conference through e-mail by members of the group who organised a workshop in London with young people from Kenya, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, during the time of the conference in Tasmania. This e-mail linkage showed the conference delegates new ways of creating an invigorating climate during the plenary discussions.

Because we see the conference in Tasmania as a significant starting point to develop the Youth forum idea into a practical organisation, we have written a report about the developments during the conference and about our action plans in the near future. We will present this report to the Guiding Committee on March 6th in London and post it to all WEF sections and the

attending conference delegates. We would appreciate your reactions as well as your ideas and possible contributions etc. etc., for it is only together that we can make the development of the Youth forum work. We would like to thank everyone for their support during the conference in Tasmania and we are looking forward to working together in making the WEF Youth Forum the success it deserves to be.

You can contact the Youth Forum Exploratory Group at the following e-mail addresses:

wefy@hotmail.com
saulvanstapele@hotmail.com

or post your mail to:

WEF Youth Forum Exploratory Group
c/o van Merlenstraat 104, 2518 TJ Den Haag,
The Netherlands.
(Tel. and Fax: +31 70 3462981)

Looking Ahead

There were agreed, shared statements. For example, to take just three:

- To enhance the existing links with UNESCO and support its aims.
- We hope that when we leave this Conference that all of us will find new paths in education to harmony, peace with the earth and all living things.
- There was an optimistic sense that together we can make a difference and we need to follow up this Conference through on-going WEF links, and the 41st WEF International Conference at Vista University in South Africa, in the first year of the new millennium.

Professor Jack Campbell, Hon. Vice-President of WEF, is currently editing a book expanding on the sub-themes upon which the conference focused. He hopes to have it available towards the end of 1999.

Further news of action in "Educating for a better world" would be welcomed for possible inclusion on our web site, or the Australian WEF Journal "**New Horizons in Education**" and the International Journal "**New Era in Education**".

The Fifth UNESCO-ACEID International Conference: "Reforming Learning Curriculum and Pedagogy: Innovative Visions for the New Century" in Bangkok, Thailand, 13th-16th December 1999, should provide strong attraction for WEF membership. For further details about registration, submission of abstracts and general inquiries, please contact:

Rupert Maclean

Fifth UNESCO-ACEID International Conference
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Nick Baikaloff,
WEF Queensland Section

This article has been reprinted by kind permission of David Massey, Editor of New Horizons in Education, Journal of World Education Fellowship, Australia.

WEF 41st Conference in 2001

in South Africa

Watch This Space

Celebrating the One-Hundredth Edition of “New Horizons in Education” – New Series

(The Journal of World Education Fellowship, Australia)

The Journal which carried the title of “New Horizons in Education” No.1 - New Series - was printed in Sydney in November 1948, and it was priced at nine pence. It included a Foreword which is still relevant to our organisation. Although NEF is now WEF, the values held by NEF are still embraced by present membership of WEF and they deserve to be restated at every available opportunity. To clarify the reasons for the successful (and sometimes less than successful) promotion of our organisation, it may be useful on occasions, to revisit the past.

FOREWORD

The NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP is more than an association of professional teachers. It is a fellowship of responsible and thoughtful people who are united in an attitude towards education, and the basis of this attitude lies in their belief that education is a continuous and perennially new process. Membership of the New Education Fellowship unites the progressive, professional teachers and their essential partners, the parents of school children, with intelligent and public-spirited laymen who, as detached citizens, appreciate the place and function of education in the community. The harmonious partnership of these three groups, within an independent organisation, is what builds the particular value of the New Education Fellowship.

The teacher alone may lack the worldly experience that can apply the findings of science and research to individual child needs. He may suffer from the limitations that accompany the value of the expert. The parent alone may lack the detachment and perspective necessary to a sound grasp of the social aspects of education, while the layman alone may not possess the body of organised, educational thought that can save him from the cult of newness.

The NEF, therefore, is neither a wholly professional nor a wholly popular body. Believing that searching and constructive criticism should ever be associated with education, the Fellowship stands to help teachers, through discussion with responsible parents and laymen, to transcend the limitations of professional and vested interests. Concurrently, it stands to help those same parents and laymen, through discussion with responsible educationalists, to avoid the slough of vague educational aspirations. This interaction and mutual aid seems to be the peculiar merit of the New Education Fellowship. Moreover, it is an international body, and, as such, shares in the great duty of this age, of promoting international understanding. The spiritual objective can be achieved only by means of education, provided that education is viewed in the most human and yet the most scientific manner possible.

C. R Bull
(Pres. N.S.W.).

The WEF Australia Council has recently produced “New Horizons in Education” Volume 100, which is available to members (included in their subscriptions) and to individuals and institutions in Australia and abroad. Inquiries are welcomed by: nickbaik@Bigpond.com

Nick Baikaloff
(WEF Queensland Section).

The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and unalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world.

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from any fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people.

Whereas it is essential, if a man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law.

Whereas it is essential to promote the development of friendly relations between nations.

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom.

Whereas Member States have pledged themselves to achieve, in co-operation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge.

Now, Therefore,

THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

proclaims

THIS UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1. All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2. Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3. Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4. No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5. No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6. Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7. All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of the Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8. Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10. Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11. (1) Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence.

(2) No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.

(2) Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14. (1) Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution.

(2) This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15. (1) Everyone has the right to a nationality.

(2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16. (1) Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.

(2) Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.

(3) The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State.

Article 17. (1) Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others,

(2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18. Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion: this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19. Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association.

(2) No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21. (1) Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.

(2) Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country.

(3) The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22. Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23. (1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

(2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

(3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

(4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interest.

Article 24. Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25. (1) Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

(2) Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26. (1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27. (1) Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.

(2) Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28. Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

Article 29. (1) Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

(2) In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

(3) These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30. Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.

Taylor, P., (ed) 1996 Researching Drama and Arts Education: Paraadigms and Possibilities, London, Fulton

ISBN 07507 0464-0. Price: Paperback £12..95. Pages: 204

I wish that I could have consulted this book in 1992 when the New Universities were compiling data for their first research assessment exercise and thinking of making a new round of professorial appointments. We argued that choreographing a major dance performance or directing a play at national or international level involved substantial academic and applied professional knowledge and skills and were the equal of books in their scholarship and academic demands. Similarly the recreation of the choreography of Humphrey in solo performance, the development of a stand-up comedy performance and an art exhibition were research as were composition and performance in music.

We were in fact successful but the area of drama in education suffered from being a performance art and part of education. Books and articles were more what was expected from them. However as the authors in this book relate it was not what the teachers in these areas necessarily wanted to do as research and they did not initially see that what they did was indeed research.

The area of education itself has spent the last 25 years trying gain acceptance for Action Research and Ethnomethodology as legitimate methods of study and research in classrooms. There are still many University departments however wedded to the experimental method which tests hypotheses and statistically analyses the results, logical positivism.

Taylor in his preface to the book describes how in July 1995 researchers from ten different countries gathered to challenge this paradigm. In the foreword and his initial chapter in part one he sets the scene to show how arts education must change these perceptions and how drama in education tutors should change how they view research.

Research is what they already do. He illustrates the narrowness and lack of value of logical positivism when applied to such complex activities as human interaction in drama. He cogently argues that the complexity of the dynamics of performance and arts education in general are such that the simple manipulation of a single variable in experimental designs followed by the crunching of numbers is demonstrably foolish. He advocates the more open methods of ethnomethodolgy, action research and reflection in action each of which he illustrates with case material. He then discusses the different nature

of the data which these generate such as observer recording, log books, interviews and stream of consciousness and makes a strong case for their validity in contrast to counting and calculating.

In chapter two Grady discusses the practice of theory in practice and examines the complex relationship between contemporary critical theories (e.g. semiotics, feminism, and poststructuralism), practical work and research design. Theory she argues can be confused as jargon but is a particular way of seeing the world which is implicit in our most commonplace sets of assumptions. Paradigms are made of sets of beliefs which both enable and constrain research. They make a scaffold which can underpin or support further work but also which excludes a range of other possibilities. She then produces a most useful table defining theoretical lenses - more cultural, literary, educational, psychological, theoretical. She relates these to a set of possible filtering paradigms - positivist, post positive, structural, utopian, post structural, constructivist leading to particular types of research activity - more historical, literary, quantitative, qualitative or artistic. Finally she illustrates how this model can be converted into practice by giving examples from two studies.

Carroll in chapter three wrestles with the problem of avoiding the cutting up of the creative processes of drama and research into 'cling- wrapped packages of dead experience' (p 72). He uses the research models of critical and transformative theory which refutes the dichotomy of the researcher and the researched by classifying all those involved in the drama process as researchers. This form of research is seen as an attempt to understand and change social reality, it is a process of attitude change, emancipation and collaboration. In drama the teacher and the students are engaged in constructing as well as experiencing the dramatic frame. Holding these two points of view in mind simultaneously requires he believes, a new sort of research question. As a vehicle he recommends the case study method because of its openness, communicativity, naturalism and interpretivity.

For data analysis he suggests time series analysis, pattern matching and explanation building activated by grounded theory method. It is grounded because it relates to and arises from the empirical phenomena it represents. He then details a number of procedures which grounded theorists use to handle their data concluding with information on computer software packages which assist in this process.

In chapter four Edmiston and Wilhelm focus upon the method of action research by which drama teachers may improve their performance. In this reflective process the practitioner is central. They then illustrate

with case examples three modes - phenomenological, ethnographical and action research. They state , ‘This chapter is like a written down score which tries to capture insight developed during and after hours of improvised teaching’ (p 95).Swortzwell next discusses the case for historical reconstruction as a research paradigm. It has three essential stages of investigation - discovery, ordering, and utilisation. In the final phase the author recommends that historical reconstruction can gain extra impetus and pulse if the historian takes on the role and tools of the dramatist. This is so that the voices of artists and teachers past and present can be heard again.

In chapter six O’Brien likens the approach to recording theatre history to a jigsaw puzzle. The script alone is not sufficient to give the whole picture. She criticises history of theatre studies courses at some universities for being a series of lectures based on secondary sources uncritically accepted by students. Instead they should study and survey both secondary and primary source material. These include scripts various, the programmes and the critical reviews of the time in newspapers and journals. They should also look at the artistic, cultural and commercial context in which the performances took place. There may also be memoirs, biographies and oral histories which need to be collected.

In the final chapter of this section of the book Saldana and Wright give an overview of experimental research methods and principles. They deal very well with the traditional methodology and clearly definesuch things as null hypotheses, statistics, literature review, variables, sampling, reliability and validity. It also gives useful advice on surveying, observing, and interviewing children. In the final part they define experimental research in drama which can actually be useful. It therefore has a place but not the main one in this field. It is a most useful summary of the case.

Part Two of the book is a much shorter section which looks at ‘Possibilities’. I was particularly taken with the metaphors in O’Neill’s introductory chapter in this section titled ‘Into the Labyrinth’. She describes how she worked in drama for many years before she began to ‘weave a net of theory to throw over my work’ (p 135). She like Taylor goes back to the work of Gavin Bolton as an inspiration for her development in this area. She describes the research process and the research question or topic crouching like the Minotaur at the centre of the labyrinth of scholarship with a maze of pathways and blind alleys leading in all directions. She argues that the use of metaphor is powerful and important and one can only agree, hers were memorable.

She too finds it frustrating that so many researchers including those on PhD committees still think quantitative methods carry more weight, more truth and are more persuasive than other methods. For her drama research is not a matter of cataloguing facts but

one of growth from roots in practice and performance. it will change practice and bring changes in insight and understanding.

O’Toole reflects upon ‘Art in Scholarship’ and in a brief chapter writes it as a conversation with O’Neill concluding with a section working towards a poetics of research from his perspective of playwright, drama teacher and researcher. In the process he points out that what significant teachers in the field research is part of how they teach and write.

In chapter ten Neelands explains how teacher researchers must develop their own theory. The process he recommends is action research. He describes the development of this area and the importance of communities of research.

Ely in the penultimate chapter considers what it might mean to write a research report that is believable and interesting, worth reading. She highlights criteria about such writing and then illustrates these quotations from her students writings.

The ‘afterword’ is left to Bolton himself. He discusses three main issues which arose at the 1995 Institute of Drama Research held at Griffith University. These issues were, ‘first that the firmest link to traditional research, was dramatic representation, usually some form of role play, could be used as part of orthodox research. The second was that the reflective processes espoused by certain kinds of action research are critical to process drama. The third was that classroom drama practice can empower students to investigate a problem or issues as researchers’ (p 187). I found this a most interesting and well edited book. It is one I would recommend to all Drama and Theatre in Education colleagues as well as a wide range of other teacher researchers.

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Education into the 21st Century: Dangerous Terrain for Women? Edited by Alison Mackinnon, Inga Elgqvist-Saltzman and Alison Prentice, The Falmer Press, London & Bristol, UK, 1998, pp 199+viii, price £14.95, ISBN 0-7507-0657-0

This book has emerged from conferences in Australia, Canada, China and Scandinavia. It is, necessarily, an eclectic collection and the short chapters provide pointers rather than detailed information and analysis. One chapter, by Gaby Weiner with Madeleine Arnot and Miriam David, is devoted to Britain. Nevertheless, all are of interest, addressing issues

familiar to women working in British Education. One is constantly reminded of the chain of feminist theory and pedagogic practice, the interaction between researchers and classroom projects. The common theme identified by the editors is that women's show progress towards inclusion and equality in the various education systems conflicts with men's perception of sudden and successful feminist onslaughts; men have responded by tactics of resistance including harassment and even violence. Structure has been imposed on the book by grouping the chapters into three sections. The first concentrates on the demands of women at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The second, biggest section, is on contemporary gender education practice and theory and relations between the sexes in schools and universities. The third looks towards the future.

In the first section, Alison Mackinnon shows how nineteenth century women in Anglophone societies were 'forced to operate within the discourses of the time', constrained by patriarchal typification of gender roles. While some women actively sought inclusion into universities, others challenged the academy from without its walls. The concept of the 'femme fatale' was used to diminish the potency of the 'New Woman'. Inga Elgqvist-Saltzman traces the pleas of the Swedish feminist *Home Journal* for women's education. In early twentieth century Canada, Alison Prentice writes that women, hired instead of men for half price, had come to preponderate as school teachers. The state authorities argued that women were particularly suitable for subordinate, nurturing roles, but the suicide of an isolated, young woman teacher led to the creation of a Rural Teacher's Welfare Officer position. Thumbnail sketches of some of the women who fought for professional recognition show their determination and their courage.

The second section provides rich pickings. For instance, Hildur Ve analyses the way in which Norwegian feminist discourse has approached post modern theory. She insists that 'verbal attempts at attitude change' will not achieve equality and outlines the attempt to create change through project work in schools. Britt-Marie Berge writes that female teachers were threatened by girls demanding space in Swedish schools and of the need for courage 'to integrate both opportunities and obstacles'. Gaby Weiner et al trace the history of the impact of equal opportunity legislation and curriculum change in British schools. Readers will be aware that positive results have been popularly interpreted as boys' underachievement and Weiner discusses this 'panic' and its interrelationship to a changing market.

In the third section, Kajsa Ohrlander claims that 'feminist research today is at the cutting edge of creative research' but that this has bypassed her own Swedish institute: 'Feminist research is seldom read by men'. She concludes that teacher training 'must entail the risk of contentiousness, insubordination and

a lack of femininity'. Joan Eveline notes that while while feminists are still open to charges of racism, feminist theory has come to recognise difference in women and describes the approaches taken by Australian aboriginal women to 'de-normalise white ethnocentricity'.

This last section goes some way to providing a conclusion but there is no overall conclusion to the book. Each chapter is well referenced and there is an adequate index, although a comprehensive bibliography is lacking. The book will be a useful starting point for those who wish to pursue an international approach to progressive pedagogy and has many interesting points to make on feminist research methodology.

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Opportunities for Science in the Primary School by Alan Peacock, Trentham Books Ltd., 1997, pp 166, ISBN 1 85856 017 9, £9.95.

This book has a welcome and refreshing approach to the teaching of primary science. It is aimed at teachers or students who wish to reflect critically on various issues related to primary science. It raises questions which challenge any tendency to be complacent about a 'top-down' approach to initiatives in teaching and learning. The author shies away from simplistic acceptance of rhetoric passed down from central government and encourages closer examination of the concerns and conflicts pertinent to primary science education.

Research about practice in Britain as well as other countries underpins much of the excellent content of this book. Peacock is prepared to embrace political issues which affect the practice of primary science teachers such as the evident distrust of teachers by curriculum reform bodies such as the National Curriculum (NCC). The author begins the book by raising a number of issues which are discussed in the light of recent literature and current thinking. At appropriate intervals he challenges the reader to develop his/her own thinking by asking thought provoking questions such as 'Do we want all our future citizens to understand and speak the language of science?' (p12) or should we teach science through cross-curricular topics, specialist science topics or as a separate subject taught by a specialist teacher. Beliefs and values about such issues underpin classroom practice so it is important to articulate them.

The content of this book demonstrates that Alan Peacock has a very clear understanding of what

actually happens in primary classrooms and is aware of the pressures exerted on teachers by the National Curriculum and its assessment. He constantly relates research to the realities of the classroom and offers many exciting examples to stimulate children's thinking in ways which make links with science in everyday life. He supports a view of learning which embraces a constructive approach which sees the learner as an active constructor of his/her knowledge (McGuigan, L. and Russell, T., 1997). He advocates the need to empower children by enabling them to realise that they can investigate and find things out for themselves maybe through testing the claims of 'experts'. Importantly, Peacock also makes it clear that children must realise that not all questions can be answered by practical investigation, other means are available.

In chapter 6 'Using Published Materials Effectively', Peacock critically examines a range of studies which examine what children learn from using science texts. He highlights the difficulty that many people experience in processing expository texts and the need for teachers to teach text-processing skills, an area he considered is neglected in the pre-service training of teachers. Again, the chapter raises many questions to stimulate debate.

This book is written in an easy, fluent style and links research with practice in a way which is not contrived. For me, the key attraction of this book is the way in which it is realistic about the political and economic pressures which influence teachers but manages to motive the reader to feel empowered to overcome these constraints and provides practical suggestions for ways forward. A curriculum can then be delivered which is based on a constructivist view of learning which values non-western as well as western science world views.

Reference:

McGuigan, L. and Russell, T. (1997). What constructivism tells us about managing the teaching and learning of science, **Primary Science Review**, 50 Nov/Dec 1997, p.15-17.

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Educating the Entire Person by Ron Dultz,
(sixth edition/printing 1998, first edition 1972)
published by the author, 168pp, Price \$10

The cover claims that this is "an original theory of learning and teaching".

The "gut" of the book is very close to many of the principles espoused by WEF and it will be a welcome

addition to WEF members' libraries. It concentrates on what is best for the individual, stressing the uniqueness of the individual and the uniqueness of individual educational needs, contending that the proper way to meet these needs is to allow them to shape the individual's learning.

However, the fact that the author had to publish it himself suggests serious reservations by mainstream publishers. Some of its tone is out of sympathy with the main message of the book, a message that challenges educators everywhere to think about what they are teaching and why, and wonder whether they have taught what they think they have taught. Why does the actual text of a 168 page book not start till we get 26 pages of something of an ego trip and a judicious selection of flattering earlier reviews?

The opening sentence sets the tone, with a dogmatic assertion justified with "I believe..." spelling out Dultz's five educational objectives - all acceptable to child-centred educators - that use rhetoric to defend their choice and give no mention of any other objectives. Surely one defence of any position is to know the opposition? All five bristle with assertions that need greater examination than the book gives them. The first encourages learners to "develop naturally" but what is "natural", and what if "natural" is "unnatural" to someone else? The second Dultzian objective is to be financially self-sufficient but what if that is achieved by, say, drug-pushing? And so it goes on. From the first page there are countless questions that beg to get answers and the answers just are not there. So, while I warm to the book's intentions, I am reserved about its usefulness to win over hostile school principals.

The relative absence of morality worries me. The overall tone is a recipe for egotistical self-indulgence, making the person's need paramount at the risk of their having no relationship to society's needs.

On page 30 we read that a "central objective will be to provide each student with strong money-making skills", the next page referring to "legitimate" money-making skills. On page 49 we read that "the teacher is the servant of the student" and that the learner is expected to be of a "strong and good character". Every page has these truisms but none of them is subjected to critical examination and so can be deemed to be just 'hot air', as a first glance suggests their self-evident common sense but further examination sees every one of them as a moral and professional quagmire. Even in the section headed "Thinking for oneself" the prevailing egoism, the individual's detachment from a socio-ethical framework beyond the self, is palpable.

On page 67 we have a section on quality in learning. The four listed issues here are not what many readers would expect! The first is worded "book-keeping" (filing data and retrieving from our mind). The second is "integrating the mind's contents" (making our knowledge coherent by retaining what is useful to us)

while the fourth is “giving intrinsic quality” to it. This section comes close to the 19th century English philosopher Herbert Spencer’s utilitarian education objectives - published in 1857. Everyone agrees that the mind has the potential to contain knowledge and make rational and moral judgments but all mind-shaping does not lead *per se* to betterment or openness. Witness the political and religious brainwashing that has gone on and continues to go on in almost every nation state, including the USA. Students are seldom passive learners in school classrooms and often they learn how to play games with the teacher, learning the games rather than the teacher’s stated objectives for the lesson. Dultz assumes that “voluntary learning” has self-evidently a hen-and-egg relationship with powerful intrinsic motivation. That may not be true in regard to what we want to learn but what about what we don’t want to learn if we are not “ready” to learn. Is it not naive to claim in a blanket way, as is repeatedly done in this book, that “voluntary learning” is preferable to “compulsory education”? Some students will often choose to learn what society condemns and simply this dilemma will not get resolved by exhortation which this book tends to use. The learner-led learning of the tiny private school of Summerhill - much admired by progressive educators - has failed to either influence the public school systems or to attract large numbers of wealthy students, so if Dultz wants to parade it as a paradigm he needs to be much more clever with his arguments to win over a world-wide hostility from professional teachers and educational administrators.

A person-society tension runs through this book without ever being properly explored. Philosophy and psychology have been more successfully used by Dultz than sociology. There is too much opinion based on the author’s hunches. Written in a Messianic hectoring style, using frequently the first person singular, there is little evidence of humility.

I must have missed something because I find almost nothing “original” about this book. It echoes the well-worn progressive path started by Rousseau two hundred years ago and, as with Rousseau’s ‘Emile’, this book may offer some practical guidance for a one-to-one tutor-student teaching-learning situation but it seems far removed from a classroom of 40 mixed-ability children and one teacher. The climax in the concluding section has an Armageddon ring to it, claiming menacingly that “it is time for all traditional educators to...”. This has been around for centuries and in many countries - witness Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Dewey, Plowden, Tagore, to name but a few.

However, it challenges. It does force the reader to read slowly, to digest and reflect on almost each sentence with its contentious assumptions. It is not a quick read. It demands critical reflection and, despite its serious limitations, it is inspirational in parts.

But it is too naive as an operational manual. If what

is advocated here is so wonderful why have no nations ever based their school systems on its principles? English primary schools, after the Plowden Report in the mid-1960s, came quite near to practising what this book is advocating but much has changed since those days and we are back to dictated curricula and judging teacher proficiency by the degree to which their pupils have been cloned and measured against national norms.

While I personally go along with the rhetoric of this book, I have to say that “going over the top”, singing the praises of one’s very personal view and ignoring the enemy’s creeds and practices are not strategies that are likely to win converts.

But full marks to Dultz for publishing this at this time. While its message was *de rigueur* in the 1960s and much of the 1970s, the 1980s and 1990s have seen a demand for “accountability” in the form of schools and individual pupils being cloned and measured against national yardsticks and put into league table positions. Maybe it is about time to revise this dominant ideology and, far from being passe or anachronistic, Dultz’s message may be just the thing educators in democracies such as the UK need to be returning to. It is over 2,500 years since Socrates wrote “man, know thyself” - a text that could easily be the basis of Dultz’s sermon. I end this review deliberately with the word “sermon” because I find the whole tenor and style of this book in the sermon tradition and “Bible-thumping” does not fit with the self-liberation gospel of the preacher!

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Gender and Management Issues in Education: an International Perspective edited by Pat Dale and Patricia Owen, Trentham Books, 1998, ISBN 1858556 087 X, paperback, price £13.95

This valuable collection of chapters was inspired by a British Council sponsored seminar on the theme of gender and management issues, held in 1995 and attended by twenty-four participants from fifteen countries, all in senior positions in education. Only some of the papers presented at the seminar are included and some are by authors who did not take part. Nevertheless, the main themes of the seminar inform the volume, without rendering it inaccessible to non-participants, as can sometimes be the case.

The editors have generally carried out their task successfully, grouping chapters into three broad areas, concerned with concepts of leadership and management; the experiences of women as managers and the interaction between gender in schools and

gender in vocational settings. One of the most valuable aspects of the book is its international dimension, which draws on the commonalities of women's experiences in "developed", "developing" and rapidly changing societies. In a thoughtful introduction, Pat Duke and Patricia Owen present education as a double-edged sword, seen as a tool for modernisation in many societies, yet one which can confirm the position of girls and women, especially when they bear the brunt of declining conditions in many of the world's weaker economies.

This theme is taken up in particular in the chapter by Fiona Leach on the role of inter-governmental aid agencies, such as the World Bank, in opening up access to formal or informal education to girls without examining the content of educational programmes or the impact of such programmes on women's lives. Although a third of households globally are headed by women, the rationale of education interventions is often to support women in the domestic sphere rather than as potential producers.

A more optimistic picture is presented by Zeechan H. Rahman on the activities of the world's largest non-governmental organisation, BRAC (the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee) whose non-formal primary education programme provides a million schools for the rural poor and landless and acts as a bridge to further enrolment in government schools. Over two-thirds of pupils in BRAC schools are girls. It is apparent, however, that despite the good intentions of the programme, girls are not involved in potential areas of high economic yield. The chapter is rather uncritical and does not provide a strong evidence base but nonetheless indicates positive change.

In the first section, the two chapters by Lynn Davies and Venitha Soobiyen make an interesting contrast to the main debate. Davies argues that the conventional approach to studying women in management ("entryism") is flawed and that the focus should rather be on fostering democratic schools, which would promote a new just and equitable society for all. Despite the facade of bureaucratic impartiality, educational discourse, she asserts, is still underscored by an image of the educational process as a competitive sport or as military training. In order to build an alternative "disciplined democracy" women must immerse themselves in the micropolitics of change, rather than joining the "race to the top". Writing from her experience of South Africa, Soobiyen also argues that gender equity is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for democracy. She takes issue with the predominant assumption expressed at the seminar that leadership positions are potentially gender-neutral. Dominated by a male hegemony, she argues that education is a site of gender struggle, where changes to management structures are helpful, but not the whole story.

In a reflective preface, the editors ask whether the senior position of participants at the seminar

"compromised" this group which had managed to climb through the glass ceiling. They also briefly discuss the place of personal experience in academic literature as problematic. The final section of the book on women as managers is informed by the experiences of "successful" women, gathered through interviews and questionnaires, or based on personal accounts. Chrysanti Hasibuan-Sedyono paints a vivid picture of the "double bind" in which the increasing number of Indonesian women find themselves. Castigated as "unladylike" if their management style is seen as too aggressive or weak and irrational if not, they also find themselves scrutinised "with a magnifying glass" to check whether they come up to standard as mothers.

In all three chapters in this section, women attributed their success to the support of workplace mentors and of husbands and to their own personality factors. While these are no doubt important, the chapters underline the problem of limiting research to the "success stories" in this field, which tend to downplay the obstacles which can be insurmountable for other women. Another tendency of this kind of research is to feature the self-reported management style of women as empowering, co-operative, based on teamwork and high staff morale. As Jeanette Morris acknowledges in her chapter on Trinidad and Tobago, such assertions need to be corroborated. The third case-study in this section, an autobiographical account by Devarakshandam Betty Govinden of her role as Dean of a South African University, further illustrates this research dilemma. The chapter describes well the frustration and exhilaration of working in a volatile situation, where universities are often crucibles of change. However, it lacks the more reflective and detached stance appropriate to this kind of publication.

In the conclusion, Drake and Owen try to draw together themes and unanswered questions with some degree of success. Although at times this rather reads like a checklist of notes than a real exploration of issues, it nonetheless draws the reader's attention to the problematic nature of educational change, the unintended consequences which change may bring and to the commitment and readiness to take risks which such change entails. While somewhat downplaying the different interests of women with children and of women without children, they also neglect to probe a theme promised in the introduction, namely that of men as victims in flawed systems. Nonetheless, the book remains thought-provoking and highly readable, and should be recommended for a broad range of courses.

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Co-ordinating Science across the Primary School by Lynn D. Newton & Douglas P. Newton, London: The Falmer Press 1998, pp212, ISBN 0 7507 0688 0) £8.95

This book is designed to meet the needs of co-ordinators in the primary school but there is much to interest the classroom teacher, teacher trainers and students studying science as a specialist subject on initial teacher education courses.

The book is a response to the needs of science subject co-ordinators generated through increased accountability to Ofsted for improving the quality of teaching and learning in school.

Five key areas are addressed:

- The review and development of the difficult roles co-ordinators are asked to play.
- Updating subject knowledge and subject pedagogical knowledge.
- Development and maintenance of policies and schemes of work.
- Monitoring work with the school to enhance the continuity of teaching and progression in pupils' learning.
- Resources management and sources of information and useful contacts.

This book offers comprehensive coverage of a wide range of aspects within these broad areas and is written in a very accessible, readable style. The layout is user-friendly and clearly organised under subheadings and has separate suggestion boxes of practical ideas. A summing up section at the end of each chapter is a valuable aid for locating material.

The book begins with a 'no nonsense' exposition about the role and responsibility of the science co-ordinator which stresses the relationship of the subject co-ordinator to standards in the school. The importance of whole staff involvement permeates the book and highlights the fact that the co-ordinator should not be battling on alone. Chapter 3 is devoted to ways of working with others such as the head teacher, other co-ordinators and colleagues. This chapter is full of excellent practical suggestions for approaches to staff development and ways of avoiding and dealing with conflict in a sensitive manner.

The authors reassure the reader that it is not necessary for the co-ordinator to be the 'fount of all scientific knowledge and understanding' (p14) but it is important to know where to find the answers to questions. The chapter on information and resources

provides invaluable starting points in the search for knowledge. Further support is provided in chapters 6 and 7 in part 2 where the authors have interpreted key concepts outlined in the National Curriculum. This is enhanced by information about commonly held misconceptions which raise issues about effective strategies for teaching and assessing scientific understanding. However, photocopies of children's work or transcribed dialogue would have brought this section to life. Pedagogical knowledge is addressed effectively throughout the second part of the book and is clearly influenced by a constructivist view of learning (McGuigan and Russell 1997).

Part 2 concludes with a short but helpful section on ICT (Information and Communications Technology) in science which is seen by the TTA (Teacher Training Agency) as having considerable 'potential for improving the quality and standards of pupils' education' (TTA, 1998). No examples of software are given, presumably because they become out of date quickly but a software evaluation schedule is included. Sources of help with ICT are, however, listed in the final chapter.

School policies and schemes of work are addressed in part 3 and again this is linked to the need to consult staff and take their strengths into account. Examples of an action plan and whole school planning sheets are provided and potential difficulties such as needing to consider continuity and progression in a school with mixed age classes are resolved. A model of good practice in science education is presented.

There is recognition that without the co-operation of colleagues, no science policy will be effective so, in Part 4, there is guidance on the difficult task of monitoring the implementation of the policy in practice in a sensitive way. The key to success lies in whole staff involvement in the writing of the policy as colleagues will have ownership which will motivate them to implement it effectively.

Overall, this book offers a wealth of support for the aspiring co-ordinator or those already in post in a way which links theory and practice. The ease of accessing relevant information and the empathetic style in which it is written make it a first choice for science co-ordinators and interested others.

References:

McGuigan, L. and Russell, T. (1997) What constructivism tells us about managing the teaching and learning of science, **Primary Science Review**, 50, Nov/Dec 1997 p15-17.

TTA (1998) **Initial Teacher Training National Curriculum for the Use of Information and Communications Technology in Subject Teaching** Annex B of Circular 4/98 DfEE.

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Breaking Boundaries: Women in higher education edited by Louise Morley and Val Walsh, Taylor and Francis, London, UK, 1996, pp.234+vi; ISBN 07484 0520 8, paperback £13.95

This series of essays is culled from the Women's Higher Education Network (WHEN) Conference held at the University of Central Lancashire in 1994 combined with some specially commissioned chapters. Its theme is **Women's engagement with higher education as academics, researchers and students** (p3). As with all conference collections it runs up against the problem of how to produce a coherent theme from what may have been rather disparate contributions. The authors attempt to surmount this by dividing this book into two.

The first section deals with **Diversity, Equity and Change** and contains eight chapters discussing a wide variety of issues relating to Women in higher education. The articles are of interest not merely because of their content but also because of the range of research methods employed. Each reader will have her/his particular interests and favourites; all are well worth consideration. I especially liked the chapters by Heward (on Women's careers in higher education), Maguire (on older Women), Kettle (on factors influencing Women's academic carers). In the latter, the case studies were particularly illuminating.

Section Two, **Feminism in the Academy**, is equally interesting and wide-ranging. Dealing more specifically with areas of feminist research and issues in Women's Studies, articles cover such topics as women and disability, Irish Women in higher education and mothering and education. There is an

excellent survey by Louise Morley of the challenges posed by feminist research, a sophisticated analysis of quantitative data in equal opportunities research by Mairead Dunne and an interesting chapter by Val Walsh.

This section, however, does not relate as closely to the overall theme as did section one, nor does it link to section one. There is little to connect each chapter. Perhaps an overarching introduction to section two would have been helpful or even devoting a whole book to these themes. The overall introduction would have benefited from a longer coverage and more in-depth discussion of the themes and there are times when editing could have been tighter. One instance of this is Lantaffi's **Women and Disability in Higher Education; a literature search**. Those expecting just that-a literature search-will be disappointed. Producing a mere page of references (in contrast to, for example, Morley's five) is hardly the hallmark of a literature search. Instead what has been created is a very concise, useful acceptable discussion of issues such as disabled women's experiences within the academy. She points out that disabled women *have a new perspective and new ideas to offer and to take* from Women's Studies (p184). Editorial control on title would have been useful.

These criticisms apart, this is an interesting collection of essays which deserves wide reading from all those involved in Women's Studies and higher education.

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Twenty-first Century Educational Reconstruction

at

Stetson University, DeLand, Florida

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Deadlines for articles: July 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: September 1, 1999

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Deadline for articles: November 1, 1999

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August 2000: Targets for Continuing Education

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Contributions to *New Era in Education* are welcomed. Articles in the first part of the journal are refereed. Reports, short articles or views on any aspect that relates to the principles of the World Education Fellowship are also very welcome. The Editor is anxious to receive details of good practice and responses to themes covered.

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Editorial: Education = Literacy and Numeracy?

Sneh Shah

Literacy and numeracy are almost universally taken as the key objectives in education, with the assumption that 'problems' in the world, such as poverty, hunger and injustice will be eradicated as people become numerate and literate. The earlier emphasis on the three Rs (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic) in the British tradition, has now been replaced by English, Mathematics and Science as the core subjects in children's education. The common link between the three Rs and the current three core subjects is their perceived relationship with the economic advancement of the country.

In order to examine, especially on the eve of the new millennium, what context World Education Fellowship may give to these basic subjects, past issues of **New Era in Education** and WEF publications were looked at. One approach to education did not specify the overriding importance of literacy and numeracy. I also came across a copy of the flyer for the book **Education for Self-Discovery**, edited by J.B. Annand for World Education Fellowship, published by Hodder and Stoughton in 1977. It is a book that should be read by all members of WEF. The flyer for the book states:

For generations, men and women have been saying that the world is faced with problems unparalleled in history. We say it today. But today's problems are more inter-connected, more complex, and more pressing than ever before, and because of the pace of technological advance, the rate of change is faster. To cope with change successfully, a nation requires in its citizens a subtle mixture of flexibility and stability; for the solution of complex problems, an intellectual ability matched with unclouded imagination; and for the enjoyment of living, a sense of adventure, with the self-confidence to embark upon it. In how many of our citizens have these qualities been developed, either by parents, teachers, or the community?

In this book, on behalf of the World Education Fellowship, men and women from five different countries contribute their pleas for a new balance

in education - a balance giving equal attention to the nourishment of feeling and of intellect. It constitutes, in effect, a powerful argument for a re-appraisal of all that is done in the name of education, and of the manner of doing it.

It could be argued that if taught appropriately, literacy and numeracy could result in the results envisaged by the authors of **Education for Self-Discovery**. The section on International Literacy Day (September 8), in **New Era in Education** (1983) vol. 64 (4) includes series of extracts from UNESCO and other sources. The extract from **Convergence**, vol. XIV, 4, 1981. pp. 7-8 reads as follows:

Udaipur Literacy Declaration

Recognising that literacy is a decisive factor in the liberation of individuals from ignorance and exploitation and in the development of society' was a central tenet of the declaration on literacy agreed by representatives of national literacy programmes and of international organisations and adult education workers participating in a special seminar on literacy in Udaipur in India, in 1982.

The declaration was conscious of 'the need to arouse awareness, nationally and internationally, that the struggle against illiteracy can be won, to demonstrate solidarity with those working on behalf of the thousand million adult illiterates in the world, and to vigorously mobilise the resources and will to eradicate illiteracy before the end of this century'.

Amongst its statements...

One out of every four adults in the world cannot read or write, victims of the discrimination, oppression and indignity that illiteracy breeds...

"It is not enough merely to teach skills linked to general economic development if the poorer classes remain as exploited and disadvantaged as before. A literacy campaign must be seen as a necessary part of a national strategy for overcoming poverty and injustice. A realistic campaign focuses on levels of skills and knowledge achieved, rather than on mere numerical enrolment, and takes into account cultural, geographic and linguistic issues.

A literacy campaign is a potent and vivid symbol of a nation's struggle for development and commitment to a just society. It creates a critical awareness amongst people about their own situation and about their possibilities to change and improve their lives.

Such statements of intent are laudable. But there are many very naive assumptions in such statements. Policies based on such statements, therefore, may on paper lead to a greater spread of a higher level of education amongst people. In reality, the benefits are not as laudable. Talk about a nation's development implies that everyone in the country referred to in the literacy programmes is united about achieving justice and ending disadvantage and exploitation. It is also unclear from such statements as to precisely how making people more literate and numerate is automatically going to lead to an eradication of poverty. There is evidence that individuals who have become numerate and literate have often added to the large number of people who are unemployed as they have targeted employment which they believe to be appropriate to their education, but which has not been set up in the nation's development plan.

On a more positive note, an article by Ernest Choat, *Primary Mathematics: The challenge ahead*, in **New Era in Education** (1977), vol. 58 (5), has more pertinent questions and suggestions (p.130):

It is seldom considered why it is essential for children to learn mathematics. The answer is simply that in their lives children cannot avoid mathematics. From their earliest days, they are concerned with spatial configurations and manipulations, the necessity for balance and equivalence and their reliance on symmetry, and the adaptation of these aspects to the relationships of number.

Mathematics has qualities which bring richness and fulfilment to life. It is a cultural subject in its own right. The space in which children live is the origination of their early spatial experiences. No-one can deny that they live in space, move in space, and analyse space to be better adapted to it. Therefore, young children experiment with their own body movements and the occupation of space when they crawl, walk, run, jump, tunnel, climb, paddle, swim etc. Mathematics has practical uses when children need to shop, wear clothes, judge distances

and measures, make exchanges etc., and in their play, games and recreation they refer to it for organisation, rules and conduct. Consequently, mathematics is part of an individual's basic language through which he is able to interpret and communicate with others while involvement with mathematics encourages logical and ordered thinking.

One of the current adjectives in usage for the curriculum today in principle encapsulates these purposes - relevance. Grouping learning under different headings/subjects is immaterial. What counts is the effect the learning has on the pupils. Relevance could be purely in economic terms- the type of skills deemed to be needed for the nation's development, which is a replication of the value of the three Rs. Or relevance could be in terms of the individual's daily needs, in the context of the group/s to which s/he is deemed to or wants to belong to and how these groups fit into the wider context within a country and globally. The relevance could be a completely new vision in which the individual needs to be literate in such a way that s/he is creative and innovative.

The new millennium may have exciting openings for those who have the power, the knowledge and the resources. But for a large number of people their prospects are tied with an even faster and more complex world than even in the 1990's. If resources spent to make people numerate means they have the basic numerical skills, then that education is unlikely to make any real difference to their individual well being or their quality of life. Numerical skills have to equip them to cope with the way individuals, organisations, nations and the global community operate so they understand how they, at the very local level, are affected.

Similarly, literacy should be very relevant to the individual's locality, but it has to be recognised as being much more. A woman of 84 was recently talking about life when she was a young orphan in a village in India. Mainly because her father was a teacher she learnt to read, but reading was something she was excited about. She always rushed home, finished all the chores so that she could, even in a dim light, read whatever she was able to find. Surely it is the opening of a person's mind that has to be the real purpose of literacy.

Teacher Language in the Classroom: Equal access for All?

Joy Jarvis

Introduction

The purpose of this article is to explore some of the issues surrounding children's access to the language used by the teacher in the classroom. Understanding the teacher's language is of crucial importance for classroom learning but may be a problem for some children. With the increasing inclusion of children with special educational needs in the classroom (DfEE, 1998) the issue of access to teacher language becomes extremely important. If there is to be a realistic attempt to include all children within the same educational provision then teachers need to reflect on, and if necessary modify, their use of language in order to meet the needs of all children. Issues teachers and teacher trainers may need to consider are also examined.

Access to classroom language

Teacher language has been a focus of attention for some time, both in terms of its potential for supporting children's learning and for the difficulties it can cause if children's thinking is limited by the over use of closed questions and a high level of teacher control (Britton, 1970; Bruner, 1975; Jones, 1988). For all children there will be a difference between the type of language used at home and that encountered in school. The classroom ritual of communication exchange has been well documented (Jones, 1988). The group context and the asymmetry of power within the classroom, whereby the teacher structures and controls the interaction, lead to certain types of language being used by teachers. Questions, particularly display questions for example, are used much more frequently in home than in school contexts, and language used by pupils in school tends to involve shorter answers and more elliptical utterances than language used with parents (Wells, 1986).

Interaction in a group context is likely to be less facilitative of language development than one to one interactions of children with an adult and this will be particularly significant for children whose English is not, for whatever reason, developed to an appropriate level. Some children may also have less access to individual interactions with teachers than others. There is some evidence to suggest that teachers speak on average less to girls than to boys, less to black children than to white and less to children who do not initiate interaction (Swann, 1992; Biggs and Edwards, 1994; Sadler and Mogford-Bevan, 1997). In a case study of a four year old Pahari speaker in a nursery class, for example, the child was unable to initiate communication in English although there was evidence

of some attempt to initiated non-verbal communication. However, the author (Drury, 1997, p.33) notes:

At first, none of the monolingual staff talk to Nazma (except for classroom management purposes).

In a study of teacher language in special unit provision for children with language difficulties there was a strong effect of pupil initiative on the amount of language elicited from the teacher (Sadler and Mogford-Bevan, 1997a). This was a small group context where teachers had as a key aim the linguistic development of their children. However, the number of initiations of interaction used by the child appeared to determine how frequently the teacher communicated with that particular child. In one unit session, for example, while one child was spoken to by the teacher sixteen times, another was spoken to one hundred and sixty four times (Sadler and Mogford-Bevan, 1997a). What is of particular significance, perhaps, is that teachers were not aware of this difference until the evidence was shown to them.

There is evidence of the importance of the role of the child in eliciting appropriate child directed speech from parents in the early stages of language development (Pine, 1994). If the child fails to initiate or respond to communication opportunities, parents may not be stimulated to use supportive strategies, thus making the language learning more difficult (Conti-Ramsden, 1994). With teachers also apparently susceptible to the same influence as parents, less interaction time may be given to pupils who are less confident in their communication skills, or who have language difficulties or who are at the early stages of learning English. It may be that children who need to be talked to more are in fact talked to less. Biggs and Edwards (1994), however, in their study of classroom language did not find that pupil initiative correlated with the amount of language used by a teacher to a particular child, rather the correlation was with race. This may suggest either a conscious or unconscious perception of need by the teacher, or subtly different forms of communication used by different communities which may influence interaction.

Vernon-Feagans (1996) studied teachers teaching a topic to children who had been divided into ability groups. In each case the same teacher taught the same topic to the two groups, thereby bypassing individual differences in terms of teaching style. She found that the quality of instruction was fundamentally different, with the lower ability groups receiving poorer interaction in terms of feedback and responsiveness

on the part of the teacher. It was not clear whether this was due to child characteristics or to perception of need on the part of the teacher.

The same author Vernon-Feagans (1996) looked at interactions between individual children and their teacher. The teacher was asked to support each child's telling of a picture story by asking specific questions about the pictures, and if the child made an error to use whatever strategies she thought appropriate to help him/her to answer the question correctly. Vernon-Feagans found that the teachers, who were all white, were more successful in supporting the white American children in this task than the black American children.

This was not due to the number of initial errors in answering the questions, as both groups of children made a similar number of errors. Vernon-Feagans (1996) discovered, however, that the two groups of children made different types of response when answering the questions incorrectly. The white children tended to use a 'no response' error such as *I don't know* whereas the black children tended to make 'irrelevant answers' which appeared to the teachers to be unrelated to the questions posed. The teachers found it much easier to respond to 'no responses' by giving explanations and helping children towards understanding, while they found it difficult to know where to start when the child's answer appeared to be inappropriate. The white children, therefore, had more facilitative input from the teacher. Vernon-Feagans argues that the differences in child response may lie in the child's understanding of the task and the experience of language use within the home community. The result is, he suggests, that the black children in this study received less effective teaching than their white peers.

Teacher Language for Learning and for Language Development

Two different, though related, functions of adult language in the classroom can be considered. One is related to language to support learning, and the other is involved in the learning of language itself. There is no doubt about the importance of the language used by the teacher to develop a child's understanding of a topic, as made clear by Bruner (1975, p. 6):

Intellectual development depends upon a systematic and contingent interaction between a tutor and a learner....Teaching is vastly facilitated by the medium of language which ends by being not only the medium for exchange but the instrument that the learner can then use himself in bringing order into the environment

Of course the person interacting with the learner does not have to be the teacher- for example, it could be another pupil. However, the key role of teacher language in supporting access to concepts in relation to the curriculum is clear.

The role of adult language in supporting the

acquisition of language by the child is also well documented. Supportive strategies include following the child's lead, creating a context of semantic contingency so that language is clearly linked to its context, and adapting language input to the comprehension level of the individual child (Pine, 1994). This is not, however, the normal linguistic context of the classroom and may be incompatible with delivering a prescribed curriculum. Harrison (1998) notes that teachers may find it difficult to teach the curriculum using strategies which support language development. Sadler and Mogford-Bevan (1997b) found that the more equal conversational exchanges between pupil and teacher, in which teachers used supportive child directed speech, tended to occur in non topic based activities, when the conversation could be considered to be *off-task*. The need to concentrate on curriculum objectives may conflict with the need to develop language by responding to child initiatives as shown in the following example of a child working with a teacher in a unit provision for children with language difficulties (Sadler and Mogford-Bevan, 1997b, p. 45):

Pupil: that's like them things on telly last night

Teacher: what?

Pupil: like them men I seen on telly last night

Teacher: never mind now just tell me what it says here

The teacher is concerned with a curriculum objective - helping the child identify words in a text. The child's language development, however, could be supported by responding to the initiation and helping him/her to identify the link between the text and experience. This child is showing ability to self-correct and to alter his/her language in response to the teacher's lack of understanding of the original utterance by changing *things* to *men*. Discussion might have led to mutual understanding. Clarification requests from the teacher could help this child to improve the explicitness of his/her language, but in this case the word recognition objective in relation to the task took priority. Leung (1993, p. 178) in her classroom study of interactions between teachers and children who were learning English as an additional language argued that:

there did not seem to be many opportunities for teachers and pupils to be engaged in meaningful negotiation and comprehension checking.

The negotiation of meaning and mutual understanding is a key aspect of language acquisition. (Pine, 1994). The reason for the apparent lack of opportunities for this in classroom contexts may be to do with number of pupils, time constraints, the

emphasis on achieving curriculum objectives or to the teacher's understanding of his/her role in supporting learning.

The Effect of Teacher Language on Child Language

The effect of the teacher's language on the language produced by the child is well documented in studies which consider individual differences between teachers. Biggs and Edwards (1994) and Sadler and Mogford-Bevan (1997b) studied teachers operating in similar contexts who had very different styles of interaction with their pupils. The quality of pupil contribution was noticeably better with some teachers than with others. This was not necessarily related to the number of children in the class, the lesson content or to the teacher's expressed aims and objectives. It appeared to be to do with the style of interaction, although this may be difficult to quantify.

One way to attempt to analyse differences is to code teacher utterances in some way. Wood, Wood, Griffiths and Howarth (1986) reported the results of an experimental study in which teacher utterances were coded in relation to their level of conversational control. Five levels ranging from high control moves such as requesting the repetition of an adult utterance to low control moves using phatic utterances such as *lovely, oh, I see*, were recorded. Teachers were asked to use different levels of control on different occasions in conversation with the same group of deaf children. The study found that children made short, limited responses and lacked initiative when teachers used high control moves and that the same children talked a great deal more, made longer responses and took greater initiative in the conversation when the teacher used low control moves. The study also showed that it was possible for teachers to change their interaction style.

Teachers' awareness of their use of language

In order to change one's use of language one has to be able to monitor this during classroom interactions while they are happening. Do teachers do this? Teachers interviewed in Sadler and Mogford-Bevan's (1997a) study, for example, stressed the importance of having conversations with children to support their language development and the importance of the language used by the teacher in providing a model of talk. However, when their practice was recorded and analysed, there was little evidence of conversation and the model of talk provided was mainly one of giving instructions and information. It is clearly important, therefore, for teachers to have the tools to help them to reflect on their own language use. Vernon-Feagans (1996, p. 169) noted that the teachers they interviewed *had not been trained to monitor their own talk*.

This has implications both for the initial training

of teachers and for continuing professional development.

Results of research on language in the classroom and its effect on child language and learning have been known for some time and yet it is unclear whether there has been any change in practice in many classrooms. This may be due to the influence of numbers, certain styles of language perhaps being necessary when one is trying to work with large groups. However, similar teaching practices regarding language use are found in large and small group and individual adult-child interactions. Wood et al (1986) expressed surprise when they moved from researching teachers working with large groups of hearing children to observing teachers of the deaf working with small groups of children and found that the language styles were so very much the same. Possibly the issue of the teacher's role is important. In the study reported by Wood et al (1986), as teachers lowered their level of control in conversation so the children became more assertive and less likely to follow the teacher's lead. This could be seen as undermining the teacher's role.

A Case Study

It was decided to undertake a case study to see whether teachers were able to identify different styles of interaction with children and if they could comment on the appropriateness of the communication in relation to children's learning.

Two video samples of female teachers of the deaf interacting with four year old deaf girls were shown to 15 teachers who were taking a post graduate qualification to be teachers of the deaf and on another occasion to 12 teachers undertaking an MA module in effective teaching in the early years. The videos were also shown to 25 mature students who were undertaking a BA in Early Childhood Studies and who had experience, but not teaching qualifications, in working with young children.

The Samples

The first sample showed a teacher making sandwiches with two deaf four year olds who had good attention and eye gaze, a clear understanding of turn taking in conversation and who could produce a few single words. The aim of the activity was to support the children's understanding of conversation and to learn vocabulary associated with the activity (Part of the transcript of the video is in Appendix 1).

The second sample showed a teacher looking at a familiar picture book with one deaf four year old who was at a similar language level to the children in the other sample. The aim of the session was to support the child's understanding of conversation and to develop vocabulary related to the topic of the story (Part of the transcript of the videos is given in the Appendix 2).

Results

All the teachers and all the early childhood studies students said that the second sample was more facilitative of language development than the first. The reasons they gave were as follows:

- * The teacher in the first sample:
 - talked too much
 - talked too fast
 - was bossy
 - didn't give the children a chance to say anything.
- * Whereas the teacher in the second sample:
 - let the child control the pace of the session
 - responded to what the child said or did
 - let the child take the lead

Wood et al's (1986) levels analysis of 30 of each of the teacher's utterances taken from the video transcripts does suggest a higher number of controlling moves for the teacher in the first sample. This sample contained a request for repetition of an adult utterance, the highest level of control, *Say: I want a knife*, which was not found in the second sample. Approximately half the teacher utterances in sample one were questions, while a third of the second sample consisted of questions. Both the samples included information given by the teacher:

- *sample one
 - *that's the brown one*
 - *you have the white one*

- *sample one
 - *don't want that one*
 - *no, not crocodile*

In the first sample the teacher responds to the child's verbal or non verbal contribution on four occasions while in the second sample there is evidence of a much higher level of responsiveness, with at least eight response moves including a number of imitations of the child (Appendix 1, lines 22 and 25).

When watching the videos with no sound, an activity suggested by Wood et al (1986) when looking at interactions between adults and deaf children who may be more aware of visual than aural cues, it was noted that the teacher in the first sample:

- leaned forward and appeared dominating
- kept control of the equipment
- gave the children an item of equipment only when they gave an acceptable response (i.e. a vocalisation)

- manipulated the children's hands for purposes of demonstration

On the other hand the teacher in the second sample:

- was further away from the child and seemed relaxed
- let the child hold the book and turn the pages.

It is clear that control was not only evident in linguistic terms but that other signals were given to children which are not evident in transcripts alone.

Discussion

It is not possible to compare these samples of interaction in real terms as they involve different children with different teachers in different contexts. It is not clear whether the greater loquacity of the child in the second sample was due to the teacher's strategies, to the personality and language skills of the child or to the context. A 'looking at a book' activity may be very familiar in school whereas children may have made sandwiches at home but not at school. Additionally it is not clear whether the teacher in the first sample talked so much because the children had very limited expressive language or whether consciously or unconsciously she was attempting to use a language development strategy.

What is interesting is that both the teachers and the undergraduates responded in the same way to the samples and that the undergraduates, at least, were basing this on experience rather than on any formal knowledge of language development strategies. We know that the majority of parents use appropriate child directed speech without any training but that difficulties can arise if the child does not follow the normal developmental pathway and fails to stimulate the adult to produce this speech. In this case parents need to use their strategies more consciously, according to Kelman and Schneider (1994), and in their study teachers and mature students working with young children could identify some strategies used by teachers in video samples. What is not known, of course, is whether they could identify their own strategies. Sadler and Mogford-Bevan's (1997) study suggests that many teachers, even those working as specialist language teachers, are not able to do this and Vernon-Feagans (1996, p. 189) found that

even good teachers appeared to be unaware of their differential treatment and different effective teaching styles with their children.

The Way Ahead?

Individual teachers interact with children in

different ways and the type of interaction will have an effect on the child's learning and the acquisition of language. This is important for all children but may be particularly important for children with a linguistic deficit or delay. Teachers' interaction style may be influenced, consciously or unconsciously, by their perception of their children's abilities, their philosophy of teaching or their understanding of strategies for language development. Additionally they may be affected by the children's language skills in terms of amount of communication initiative taken and type of language used. Teachers may be able to reflect on language used by teachers in video samples but need to be able to analyse and monitor their own language in use. This suggests that teachers in initial and post qualification training need to have the opportunities to develop these skills. As Sadler and Mogford-Bevan (1997a, p.32) argue, trainers need:

not only to provide instructional input on aspects of language disability, but also to give teachers the opportunity to reflect on their practice; to appraise it and try out and monitor new styles of interaction within the context of the relationship which they already have with their pupils.

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*See Appendices 1 and 2
on pages 76 and 77)*

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Appendix 1 : Making Sandwiches (*Extract from the transcript*)

Adult	Child
1 that will make a nice sandwich <i>(gives slice of bread to child A)</i>	Child A nods
2 is that more to your liking?	
3 and that will make a nice sandwich	<i>(gives slice of bread to child B)</i>
4 that's the brown one	
5 you have the brown one	
6 you have the white one	
7 now what are you going to do?	
8 what are you going to do?	Child A points to the butter
9 what is it?	
10 that's the butter	
11 well are you going to get your finger and put it on like that? <i>(teacher takes child A's finger and</i> <i>pretends to put it in the butter)</i>	
12 do it with your finger?	
13 do you?	Child A points to the knife
14 you don't	
15 well what do you use?	
16 have to use a knife <i>(teacher holds up a knife, pauses and makes</i> <i>eye contact with child A)</i>	Child A vocalises
17 use a knife	
18 that's a knife	
19 like mummy has at home	Child A nods and child A vocalises
20 does mummy have a knife at home?	
21 what are you going to use? <i>(teacher looks at child B)</i>	
22 you going to use your finger? <i>(teacher takes child B's finger and pretends</i> <i>to spread butter with it)</i>	
23 are you?	
24 what are you going to use?	
25 say I want a knife	Child B vocalises
26 yes I need a knife	
27 that's right	
28 there you are	
29 one for you and one for you <i>(teacher gives a knife to each child)</i>	

Adult	Child
1 write the letter to the zoo	
2 said please send me one animal	animal
3 got this one (points to picture)	(child gets up to look for animal)
4 it's not there	
5 put it away	
6 what's this one?	vocalisation and gesture
7 yes it's an elephant	
8 yes is it good that one?	no and shakes head
9 is it good?	gestures big
10 yes its too big	
11 don't want that one	
12 this one	vocalises
13 what is it?	vocalises
14 is it good?	no and gestures
15 too tall too long too big	
16 this one	vocalises
17 crocodile?	
18 no not crocodile	
19 what's that one?	
20 lion	
21 is that good?	no
22 no	
23 boy (mimes frightened)	
24 don't like it	ah ah
25 ah ah	
26 i'm frightened	
27 don't like it	
28 what's this one?	gestures
29 camel	
30 grumpy camel	

A United European Higher Education System?: The Problems for Trans-National Institutional Convergence

Andrew Marks

Abstract

This article discusses the realities of academic *convergence* across European Union (EU) higher education systems, pointing out problems (such as diversity of systems, and language barriers) which will occur. The question then is posed whether in fact convergence is a desirable end at all. Even if a certain level of systemic 'isomorphism' were possible (it is this author's contention that it is not), is this not perhaps too high a price to pay? In the era of globalisation perhaps the higher education sector is one of the systems which should remain localised. Problems concerning the possible 'parochialism' of such a scenario are also discussed.

Note

In this article 'Europe' should be taken to mean 'Western' Europe unless otherwise stated.

Introduction

Under the current generation of action programmes (we) seek to provide learners of all ages and social groups with insights into the European dimension of the subjects they study, to increase opportunities for personal experiences of other European countries, to develop a stronger sense of sharing a European identity and to foster the ability to adapt to changes in the economic and social environment.

(European Commission, 1999, p. 8)

Since the Treaty of Maastricht, the European Commission (EC) has begun to withdraw from involvement in higher education policy, preferring to treat the matter as one of national responsibility (De Witte, 1993). For the purposes of academic convergence (particularly in light of the optimistic tone in the above quote) this is a retrograde step. As the EU becomes ever more closely linked in terms of both production and service economies (Dicken, 1986) and as Europe moves ever closer to becoming, on some level, a 'United States' it would appear essential for a level of convergence of higher education institutions to occur, a huge provider to the service sector of both employment and 'product', in the shape of degrees and graduates.

But how practical is the reality of different national higher education systems converging into a united 'European' higher education sector? There are

numerous practical and social issues which need to be addressed before any level of real integration or convergence is going to be possible.

In discussion in this article focus is on 'convergence' in the sense intended by Di Maggio and Powell (1983) and elaborated upon specifically for the international educational sector(s) by Eichelbaum de Babini (1991), where organisational 'fields' were hypothesised to 'converge' in terms of their aims and activities via three different processes of isomorphism (similarity): coercive (resulting from formal pressure from without), mimetic (as a response to change and lack of certainty) and normative (resulting from changes in status). The intention behind this article is to highlight the very real problems that face the European higher education system(s) aiming for any degree of convergence.

Different Systems

The first problem for convergence is of system diversity. On the one hand, in the Anglo-Saxon system - UK (partially omitting Scotland), Australia and the US - one studies first for a Bachelor degree, then for a Master's and only then does one pursue a Doctorate. However, in the majority in Europe the Doctoral degree is the *first* degree. Then again, there is the Scottish 'traditional' system, where the MA is the first degree for Arts and Humanities and the BSc is the first degree for the sciences. 'New' (post 1992) Scottish universities (formerly technical Institutes and technical colleges in the main, such as Abertay-Dundee or Robert Gordon) are closer to the English system.

This raises issues of comparability - how alike, for example, are these different kinds of degrees? - and transferability - can a student easily move between one system and another? If such a transfer is not practical because of lack of clarity over the meaning of degree terminology and content, then how 'united' a system can we have? Delanty (1998, p.104) puts forward the realistic view that as more and more universities are created all the time no two will *ever* be comparable. A unified terminology where titles like 'graduate' and 'doctor' mean exactly the same thing in every nation-state will be essential to a unified sector. These are all cultural gulfs needing to be overcome.

Another issue to consider is admission processes. How does one compare a system where anyone who passes the relevant school leaving certificate (such as

in France or Italy) with a system where, on some level, students have to ‘audition’ for their places (as in the competitive UK system). Are students who survive the inherent hurdles of the latter system better than those in the former? Or does the latter system merely accept the most tenacious rather than necessarily the most gifted ?

Diversity a Reality

The modern ethos, certainly in the UK, is one of competition, but is this really the reality (or perhaps the *entire* reality) of the situation? Is Oxford University really competing for the same students as its neighbour Oxford Brookes? Or Birmingham University with Central England? Or Sussex University with Brighton? Or Liverpool with John Moores? Or Leicester with De Montford? At one level there are clearly different kinds of institutions providing for different student markets in the UK, with the ‘traditional’ universities competing for academically successful and geographically mobile student populations and the ‘new’ universities and university colleges catering for local people, proportionally more mature students, vocational students and (arguably) the less qualified of the 18 year old cohort.

There is a possible third UK market to be considered, that of Oxford and Cambridge, who supply a rarefied education mostly to the privately educated (and whose experiences to date of institutional isomorphism of any kind is likely to have been minimal), but this is a much smaller market (both in terms of places offered and the potential students at which it is aimed) than those which are catered for by the ‘traditional’ and ‘new’ universities - according to Halsey et al (1980, p.76) only 6.4% of those who attend Oxford and Cambridge are state educated, whilst more

recently Blunkett (1996, p.2) claimed a very similar 7%, suggesting an ongoing and *permanent* trend.

On a wider European level, how comparable is the content of the learned experience at an ancient or medieval university, such as the aforementioned Oxford and Cambridge, or Bologna, Paris, Salerno, Montpellier, Kulm, Kobenhavs, Charles etc. both with each other, and with more modern institutions. How does one compare the academic content and the desired learning outcome in for example The Netherlands of Leiden University, a medieval, classically orientated institution with the modern, technical, labour-market led education given at the Universities of Eindhoven or Twente? In Denmark, how can one compare the 15th century Kobenhavs University with the Technical University of Denmark, or either of these with Folkuniversitetet i Roskilde, with its emphasis upon adult education? In Spain, how does the Universidad de Educacion a Distancia, a purely distance-learning based institution, compare with the country’s other places of higher learning? This is to say nothing of the internal academic processes across different nations (not least the differing time-spans of degrees) which would complicate comparisons.

In Eastern Europe the cross-national comparisons become even more complex: in the Czech Republic the University of Ostrava was founded in 1991 purely to counterbalance the negative effects of heavy industry (a clear example of a mimetically isomorphic institution in its creation). How does such an institution compare with those places whose history (whether ancient or relatively modern) is rooted, however tenuously it may be, in learning for its own sake? An ancient institution is only likely to be affected by ‘normative’ changes. Oxford and Cambridge, for example, are unlikely to change to any great degree

Table 1:
Total Numbers of
‘Foreign’ EU Students by
Country.
1993-4
(Data from ERASMUS
(EC), 1997)

Host Country	EU students (Total)
Germany 92-93	34,579
Austria	12,809
Belgium (Fr)	12,361
Belgium (NI)	3,899
Denmark	1,708
Spain 92-93	4,371
Finland	731
France	30,486
Greece	3,454
Ireland	3,388
Italy	11,842
Netherlands	2,629
Portugal 92-93	1,134
United Kingdom 92-93	34,816
Sweden	6,477
<i>Total:</i>	<i>164,684</i>

because of their perceived status - as Delanty (1998, p.110) puts it the metanarratives of legitimization . Other, more recent institutions more are more likely to change ‘mimetically’ in line with them. Thus any perceived isomorphism taking place is likely to be the ‘newer’ reshaping itself to resemble the ‘older’. ‘Technical’ institutions are different again. They may change normatively (as when the UK polytechnics became universities) and ‘mimetically’ as a response to the changing needs of industry, but any level of isomorphism between them and ancient institutions is unlikely to occur. They may also change as a result of ‘coercion’ - the formal demands of governmental education policies may change at some level prompting a rethinking of the content and delivery of what is taught. Is a genuine comparison - and transferability - between an institution rooted in logic, rhetoric and philosophy to an ‘industrial’ or ‘technical’ institution feasible? These are questions for which no satisfactory answer yet exists.

At present, what appears to happen is that there is ‘spontaneous mobility’ (Erasmus, 1997) from nation to nation by students wishing to study in another country - although the same report also indicates that the number of students from the rest of the world outside Europe outnumber European trans-national students. The ratio disparity is at its most extreme in Portugal, where European non-Portuguese students are outnumbered by non-European, non-Portuguese by 5 to 1 (3.6 to 1 in Germany and 2 to 1 in France). This rather implies that European trans-national studying is at present, relatively speaking, very small scale. Details of the host countries for European students are detailed in Table 1. Figure 1 demonstrates balances of incoming/outgoing EU students by country (ERASMUS (EC), 1997).

National Pride (s)

As can readily be seen, inflow of students is concentrated in five countries, with the UK taking the largest number of foreign European students, followed by France, Austria, Belgium and Sweden. The vast number of students apparently migrating to the UK requires some further discussion and elaboration. Since these figures reflect the net balance of incoming and outgoing, the seemingly high number of UK incomers could be a result of what could be termed the ‘British Problem’.

The ‘British Problem’

The ‘British Problem’, as I have chosen to call it, is the inability of UK nationals to fully partake of ‘Europeanism’, for a variety of socio-geographical reasons (Island status and its concomitant insularity being one) but principally the problem is the very low levels of bi- and multi-lingualism of UK nationals (historically a result of colonialist, imperialist attitudes) compared with the rest of Europe. Those who left the UK to study abroad would need to be fluent in another language, so the majority do not travel abroad to study. So whilst a superficial reading of Figure 1 would suggest UK universities are the most attractive in Europe, a deeper reading would point out that UK nationals are largely unable to study anywhere else, thus skewing the figures. If one were to measure the ‘outgoing’ numbers, one would find a very different picture.

As Table 2 demonstrates, the net balance of incomings/outgoings when compared with outgoings only makes for some interesting insights. The UK’s high balance of 25,162 is offset by the fact that only 6,787 UK nationals actually leave. Greece, for example, has a very low balance of -16,661, but all of

Figure 1: Balance of Incoming/Outgoing Mobile EU Students

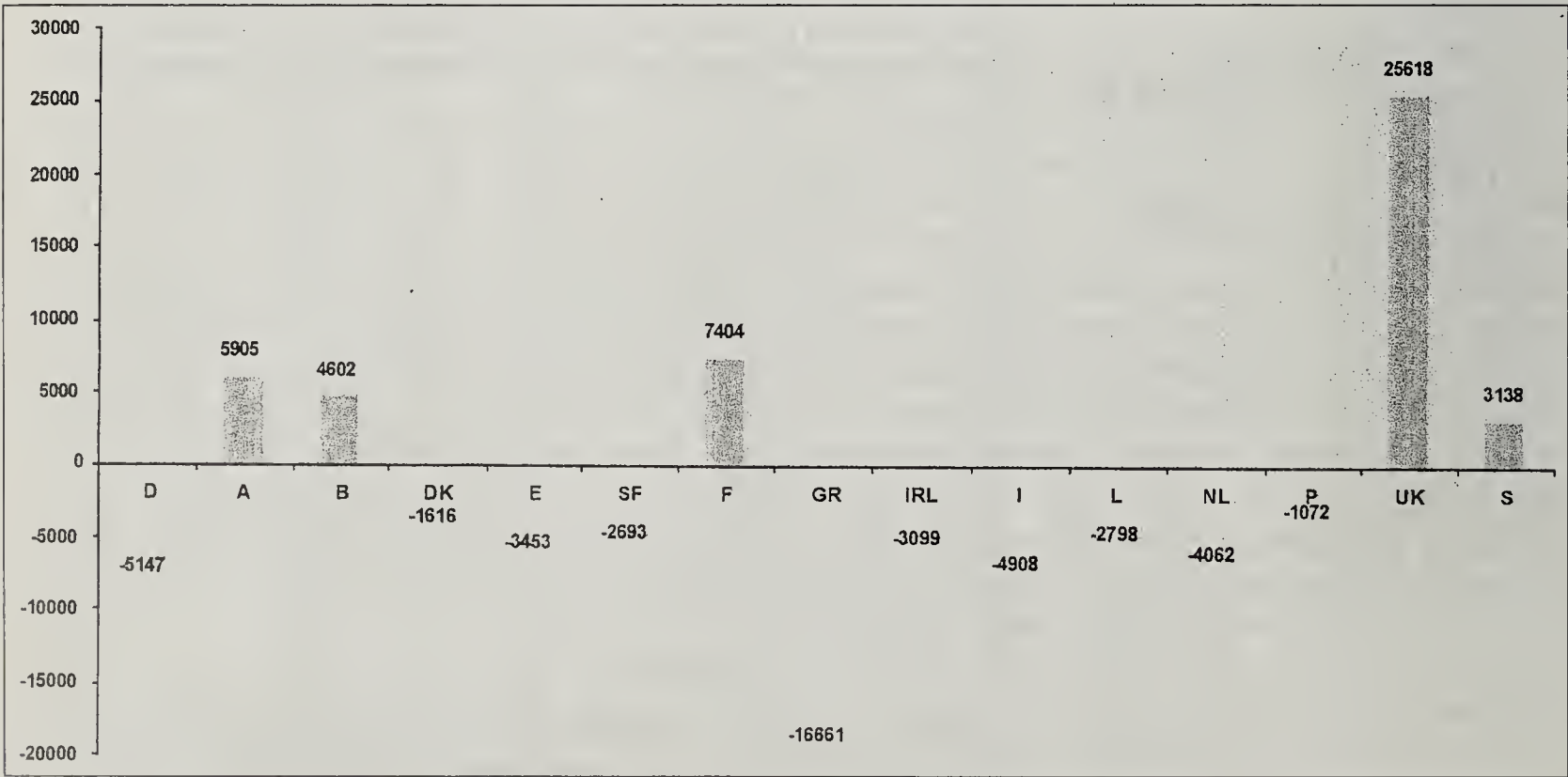


Table 2: Balance Incoming/Outgoing Students with Outgoing Only 1993-4
(Data from ERASMUS (EC), 1997)

Host Country	Balance incoming/outgoing EU students	Outgoing Students Only
Germany 92-93	-5,147	19,869
Austria	5,905	3,599
Belgium (total)	4,602	3,247
Denmark	-1616	2,159
Spain 92-93	-3,453	7,191
Finland	-2,693	3,344
France	7,404	13,971
Greece	-16,661	16,789
Ireland	-3,099	5,458
Italy	-4,908	11,888
Luxembourg	-2,798	2,789
Netherlands	-4,062	4,888
Portugal 92-93	-1,072	2,206
United Kingdom 92-93	25,162	6,787
Sweden	3138	1,856
<i>Total:</i>	<i>164,684</i>	<i>106,047</i>

Table 3: Test Scores for Dutch Language Speakers
(from Snippe, 1998, p. 81)

Group	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
Experimental Group 1 (n=35) English lecture and test	19.4	3.7
Experimental Group 2 (n=36) English lecture Dutch test	18.9	2.6
Control Group (n=38) Dutch lecture and test	21.2	3.5
Total Sample (n=109)	19.8	3.4

those are taken up by Greek nationals studying abroad - more people leave Greece to study than enter (16,798, a difference of 128). Likewise, Germany has a balance of -5,147, but has 19,869 students studying elsewhere. This could suggest that fewer people actually want to leave the UK to study than other EU nations, but it could also be a facet of the 'British Problem'. There is little reason to assume that Greek or German nationals are studying elsewhere because the higher education systems elsewhere are 'better' *per se* (although in the case of Luxembourg's relatively under-developed system this may well be the case), it is more likely that higher levels of bi- and multi-lingualism afford greater opportunities for international studying. This creates yet further problems for an EU-wide academic convergence.

An immediate solution to the 'British Problem' could be to create a level of coercive isomorphism by forcing all EU universities to teach in the English language. This is unlikely to be a popular move, and rightly so - nationals of other EU states would be likely to resent such a draconian intervention. More to the point, this is a policy which could impact negatively upon the learning outcomes of speakers of English as a second language.

Snippe (1998) performed an experimental study of this issue in her own institution, Delft University of Technology, The Netherlands, where a lecture on the philosophy of science was delivered to a group of native Dutch engineering students with a test following. Three groups took part: the first had the lecture and test in English, the second had the lecture in English and the test in Dutch and the third group had both lecture and test in Dutch. Her results are reproduced below in Table 3. In each case test scores are out of a possible thirty.

From the evidence of Snippe's work, it seems that native Dutch speakers' learning is negatively affected (albeit to a small extent) by having their teaching delivered in English. This has implications for European-wide teaching being limited to the English language.

A more long-term solution would be to improve the teaching of languages in UK schools so that the British can also become a multi-lingual society. This is clearly outside the power of universities to implement (beyond the training of language teachers themselves) and would take at least a generation before its effects were noticeable - and there would no doubt be a huge amount of cultural resistance to this, as the UK remains (regrettably) a disconcertingly xenophobic society.

There is a further issue to consider: the Anglo-Saxon system of Bachelor, Master's and Doctoral degrees is the one in use in the United States - economically the most powerful country on the planet. Even if the UK

were to fall in line with the system in use in the majority of Europe, would this not be seen as a retrograde step? Perhaps what should be considered (if 'convergence' is really what Europe wants and/or needs) is that for academic competitiveness the EU as a whole should perhaps fall in line with the US (and by default therefore, the UK). Perhaps what should really be considered here is global rather than merely EU-wide higher education.

EU Convergence - The Alternatives?

At this point, having outlined some of the associated problems of and EU-wide higher education convergence, a second scenario is proposed. Perhaps what is needed is not an ever more integrated European higher education sector, but an even more decentralised one. Elsewhere (Marks, 1998, 1999), it has been argued at length that it is necessary for universities to re-embrace their local remit (which has all but been ignored) and to market themselves to their local population, rather than to the national and international. If lifelong learning is to be anything more than a cosy soundbite, then an embracing of local communities will be essential. Those students (both potential and actual) over the age of 21 are less likely to be geographically mobile, and even less so the older they are (Marks, 1998).

A genuinely 'localised' university can respond 'mimetically' to the needs of local people, local industry, local employment needs and the local environment. Paradoxically, in doing so, universities could then gain national and international 'legitimation' because of their responsiveness to (local) needs and because of the 'usefulness' of the work carried out - perhaps even strengthening (creating?) their own metanarratives of legitimation?

It is to be acknowledged that there could be problems with this scenario: there could arise levels of 'parochialism' previously unknown. A 'local' university could, if it was not careful, become detached in its disciplines from the rest of the academic world. However, the argument here is not for the end of the community of scholars, it is merely to oppose the 'national' and 'international' priorities to the exclusion of the local - particularly regarding student intakes. A localised focus upon student and community needs does not have to mean a breaking away from other institutions and academics. Indeed, many of the local needs may be similar from one region to the next, and conference based discussions as well as publications may be a forum for cross-region comparisons and debate.

A further issue is that of the nature of the locality itself: A university set in a rural context (such as Keele, or Lampeter for example) will probably have fewer immediate links with industry than a big city university

such as Manchester, Liverpool or (especially) London. This, again, need not be a problem, as these institutions could still focus upon the needs of their local students - even if that need is simply to gain the requisite qualifications to leave the locality! More to the point, every university should have a duty to forge links with the schools in its local area to not only find proportions of its student body (that is to say, not including mature students) but to recruit pro-actively - making it clear to pupils that university is a realistic goal them (often something schools either deliberately or accidentally inhibit) and that the local institutions are the ones for them. The universities must (encourage) the aspiration toward higher learning.

In conclusion, therefore, it is this author's contention that in an ever more integrated European Union, what is needed is an ever more decentralised higher education sector. Only by representing the local can universities flourish nationally and internationally.

Notes:

- ¹ Eichelbaum de Babibi was considering a global as opposed to just EU-wide approach.
- ² A combination of these patterns of convergence could go some way to explaining the 'academic drift' of the UK polytechnics away from their original 'technical' mandate towards more traditional university' style courses, and their eventual rebirth *as* universities in 1992.
- ³ Although medical, veterinary and dental 'doctorates', where the title of 'doctor' is bestowed upon individuals who have actually only complete *bachelor* degrees will probably remain anomalous.
- ⁴ Gordon et al (1991, p23-246) are quote right when they point out that the UK system was *exclusivist* and *exclusionary* (my own terminology) in its ethos and operation until (and probably subsequently also) 1963 and the Robbins Report. UK degrees have, despite egalitarian moves such as mandatory grants etc., almost always been seen as the preserve of the wealthy. As such the UK higher education sector is a living example of the persistence of elitism.
- ⁵ Mature students over 30 being generally tied to their local area (Marks 1998).
- ⁶ Much the same question could be asked of the Open University in the UK.
- ⁷ Data regarding EU (non-UK) institutions from Looksmart Education (1999) website: www.looksmart.com.
- ⁸ Cobban (1990), (p.31) suggests that many ancient universities had their geneses in conflict - struggling with external bodies for academic freedom, for example. However, this is very much a 'historic' problem, and nowadays ancient universities have high levels of autonomy from interference from

without and the protection of governments - many of whose members are likely to be graduates of these institutions, and thus perpetuate these very 'metanarratives' of which Delanty (1998, *ibid.*) speaks.

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Trends in Training for School Leadership

Rick Davies and Miranda Preston

Until fairly recently, training for those aspiring to become headteachers and in-service training for headteachers were ad hoc, sporadic and relied on 'volunteerism', rather than being a requirement or mandatory. In many countries in Europe, North America and Australasia, there is a trend towards a closer definition of the qualities, roles and responsibilities of headteachers, described variously as competenc(i)es, standards, skills, attributes or expectations. What is apparent is that the role of headteachers has become more complex and demanding as a result of the permeation of 'New Public Management' (Hood, 1991) into public services such as housing, health, welfare and education, in general, and 'New Managerialism' (Power et al., 1997; Bush and Middlewood, 1999; Middlewood and Lumby, 1998) into education, in particular. The closer definition of the role of school leaders and its increased complexity have led to more coherent approaches to training for headship and in-service training for headteachers. In this article several approaches to defining the role and models of training are examined.

In England and Wales the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) has taken responsibility for the development and implementation of a national training programme which consists of three parts: training for aspiring headteachers, the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH); training for newly appointed headteachers, the Headteachers' Leadership and Management Programme (HEADLAMP); and training for serving headteachers, the Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers (LPSH). It is proposed that the NPQH becomes a mandatory prerequisite for all headteachers appointed from 2002 onwards. Recently, the responsibility for headship training (and all other in-service training for teachers) has been transferred to the Department for Education and Employment, with the intention of headship training being devolved to a National College for School Leadership which would start work in late 2000.

At the same time that the TTA was developing training programmes for headship, it defined a set of National Standards for Headteachers (1997, revised 1998). It was envisaged that these would provide a benchmark against which individual candidates could be trained and assessed. This development of a closer definition of the standards for headship was taking place at the same time as the development of competences for both initial teacher training and further professional development and a tighter control of the

curriculum for both initial and in-service teacher training. This trend exemplifies one of the principles or doctrines of New Public Management: explicit standards and measures of performance. A competence-based approach to headship training has been criticised (see, for example, Mahoney (1998) and Jirasinghe and Lyons (1996)) for being based on a hierarchical management model with an emphasis on observable performance, neglecting the cognitive processes which underlie that performance and qualities such as creativity, which are difficult to observe, but crucial to effective leadership. The TTA's National Standards for Headteachers have a very strong emphasis on the (observable) performance of the role in its five 'Key Areas of Headship' (strategic direction and development of the school; teaching and learning; leading and managing staff; efficient and effective deployment of staff and resources, and accountability), compared to the 'Skills and Attributes' section of the Standards. This is demonstrated by the wordage given to the two: 'Skills and Attributes' are described in 443 words and the 'Key Areas' are given 1174 words.

This competence-based approach to defining the role of headteachers is in marked contrast to other approaches, such as asking headteachers themselves. An example of this is the study of school leaders in Denmark, England and Scotland, undertaken by Reeves et al. (1998), in which they categorised the skills, knowledge, qualities and traits which school leaders thought were important. The responses of the headteachers interviewed centred much more on personal qualities than the standards established by the TTA. These included: 'being able to resolve conflict; ability to provide a view of the future, a vision; courage and the ability to confront difficult issues, and being able to handle/manage people well. The areas identified help to enable school leaders to deal with *feelings of role strain, 'identity' crisis and the conflictual situations which accompany rapid change* (Reeves et al., 1998). The underlying assumption of the responses of the serving headteachers is that if a candidate possesses the appropriate personal characteristics then these will enable appropriate responses to be made to a variety of situations and challenges posed by the demands of school leadership.

This sits well with the model of management excellence described by McBer (Boyatzis, 1982). In the 1970s the American Management Association commissioned research to determine the characteristics of 'superior' managers. McBer identified three crucial

components which all had to be intertwined for effective management to occur. These are:

- the job's requirements or demands on the individual;
- the characteristics or abilities which enable an individual to demonstrate appropriate actions, called competencies, and representing the capability an individual brings to the job;
- the context of an organisation, encompassing internal factors such as organisational policies, procedures, missions, culture, resources etc., and external factors such as the social, political, and economic environment.

The TTA followed McBer's model of effective management quite closely in devising a training programme for serving heads (LPSH). The commissioned research, carried out by McBer (House of Commons Education and Employment Committee, 1997-98) identified the following 15 characteristics of highly effective headteachers:

- 1 Personal values and passionate conviction**
 - 1.1 Respect for others
 - 1.2 Challenge and support
 - 1.3 Personal conviction
- 2 Creating the vision**
 - 2.1 Strategic thinking
 - 2.2 Drive for improvement
- 3 Planning, delivering, monitoring, evaluating and improving**
 - 3.1 Analytical thinking
 - 3.2 Initiative
 - 3.3 Transformational leadership
 - 3.4 Teamworking
 - 3.5 Understanding others
 - 3.6 Developing potential
- 4 Building commitment and support**
 - 4.1 Impact and influence
 - 4.2 Holding people accountable
- 5 Gathering information and gaining understanding**
 - 5.1 Social awareness
 - 5.2 Scanning the environment

This is in sharp contrast to the 'vocational

competency' model of Standards for Headteachers used for the NPQH, although one of the 'Key areas of headship' contained within the Standards, 'Strategic direction and development of the school', does contain statements such as: 'lead by example', 'provide inspiration and motivation' and 'create an ethos and provide educational vision and direction'. Although one could argue that the needs of people preparing for headship differ from those actually in post, the philosophies underlying these two models (the NPQH and the LPSH), developed by the same government agency, seem vastly different in tone and approach. It may be that the introduction of a portfolio of continuing professional development and the possibility of a 'fast-track' to leadership (Department for Education and Employment, 1998), beginning with the recently introduced Career Entry Profile (TTA, 1999) for new entrants to the teaching profession in England, will provide a more coherent approach to the 'shaping' of teachers' careers towards leadership.

It may be useful at this point to look at current trends in preparation for headship in Europe and further afield. Many countries require specific initial training for the position of school head. In France, new heads must undergo initial training before taking up post. Portugal has recently set up training in educational management and school administration. Spanish candidates have been required to undergo initial training and accreditation since 1996. In all the countries mentioned above, training is compulsory.

Other countries which provide, but do not require training, include: Austria, which provides seminars for new heads; Sweden, which offers training in new national guidelines for education, and Scotland, which has a programme similar to the NPQH, called the Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH). Belgium, Ireland and Italy provide some training in management and administration, but such training is scarce and not yet mandatory (Eurydice, 1996).

School leadership training in the United States varies greatly from state to state, but most states provide some professional training for both principals and vice principals. There is, as yet, no move towards a national qualification, perhaps because of the extreme diversity of the school communities in differing states. A study of expectations of school leaders in Australia revealed a similar picture of fragmentation and diversity (Dempster and Logan, 1998).

What then, can we conclude about the training needs of aspiring and serving headteachers in England and Wales and the rest of Europe? Is it possible to think about the creation of a generic model of headship training for Europe? The way forward should be founded on a model of training which could be applied to all European countries. This could build on the findings and recommendations of McBer, which focus

on the development of the personal qualities and attributes necessary for leadership, which can then be applied to the wide variety of situations encountered in headship as stated by Dempster and Logan (1998):

Principals' learning must embrace the vision and values inherent in innovation and the requirements of mandated change.

Future headteachers must not be trained to perform to a strict agenda set by tick lists and easily measured skills again as described by Dempster and Logan (1998):

School leaders must not allow their professional development to be seduced by...functional issues.

Although there are differences in the roles of school leaders in different European countries, all aspiring headteachers could follow a pattern of generic training focusing on the personal qualities and attributes needed for leadership, which could then be supplemented by country/regional specific training in skills, knowledge and understanding necessary for a particular country/region. The development of a National College for School Leadership in England is a major step forward, but consideration should be given to the establishment of a European College, similar to the long-established and successful European Business College at Fontainebleau, near Paris. The National College will make a move towards this in establishing international links, placements and exchanges (Department for Education and Employment, 1999). This will signal an end to the parochialism and isolationism that have prevented Britain and other European countries from taking the pan-European and international approach necessary for the challenge of providing the very best in school leadership for the new millennium.

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Miranda Preston is Senior Lecturer in Continuing Professional Development at University College Chichester, UK. She is also an assessor for the NPQH and is involved in a Comenius research project in Europe which provided some of the background for this article.

For and About WEF Members

A Consultation on Twenty-first Century Educational Reconstruction

Wednesday-Friday, January 5-7, 2000
at Stetson University, DeLand, Florida

In cooperation with the Department of Teacher Education,
Stetson University
and the Volusia County Public Schools

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Purpose

This Consultation of Twenty-First Century Educational Reconstruction is conceived of as dialogic conversations among about thirty-five educators from outside Florida and a similar number of in-state people, especially Volusia County teachers and teacher educators at Stetson University.

These encounters will focus on four areas:

(1) Human ecology/environmental education, (2) Community service learning, (3) education for meeting natural and human-made disasters, and (4) human rights education/non-violent conflict resolution. The four core topics have been chosen as being pertinent globally and in Florida at the start of the twenty-first century.

Organizations

Alan H Jones in the preface to **Introducing Educational Reconstruction** (San Francisco: Caddo Gap Press, 1977) wrote:

.... the philosophy of Educational Reconstruction has strong roots in twentieth century America and significant promise for the twenty-first century and beyond.

Educational Reconstruction developed from the work of theorists/activists like Theodore Brameld (1904-1987), Myles Horton (1905-1990), founder of the Highlander Fold School in Tennessee, and Morris R Mitchell (1895-1976), founding President of Friends World College. It is a global philosophy also built on the experience of great teachers such as Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi (1968-1948) who implemented Educational Reconstruction in South Africa and India. The best-known recent reconstructionist was the Brazilian Paulo Freire, author of **Pedagogy of the Oppressed** and **Critical Action for Freedom**. Currently in the United States Education Reconstruction is advocated by Jonathan Kozol (**Savage Inequalities**) and Herbert Kohl (**The**

Discipline of Hope), among others.

The Society for Educational Reconstruction (SER) was formed at Boston, Massachusetts in 1969. It is incorporated as a non-profit educational association in Connecticut. Almost immediately its members began publishing a journal, **Cutting Edge**, which came out until the 1980s. A newsletter, **SER in Action**, was begun in 1989. In 1987 SER writers collaborated on **Global Images of Peace and Education**.

Stetson University

Stetson University is Florida's oldest independent university. It was founded in 1883 by a businessman from New York State, Henry DeLand, for whom the City of DeLand is named. An early supporter was the Philadelphia hat manufacturer, John B Stetson; hence the university's name. Our consultation will be situated on the original DeLand campus where some 2,000 students are enrolled in the College of Arts and Sciences, School of Music, and School of Business Administration. Stetson's School of Law is in St Petersburg, Florida, where another 600 students are enrolled.

Stetson's Department of Teacher Education and Division of Education has nine professors and is within the Arts and Sciences Faculty. Certification programs in elementary education and English, mathematics, music, and social sciences are offered, as well as graduate-level masters and specialist programs.

Teacher Education is sited in Davis Hall on West Minnesota Avenue, just off Woodland Boulevard. This is where our consultation meetings will take place. Four meals will be served in Allen Hall, which is a half block distant. The University Inn, providing consultation housing for out-of-town participants, is two blocks from Davis Hall on Woodland Boulevard.

Also in Volusia County are Bethune Cookman College, Daytona Beach; several campuses of Daytona Beach Community College and a branch of The University of Central Florida.

The education of a free person must be education for action. It is in action that the fruits of freedom are manifested, and an education cannot be considered adequate unless it encourages translation of purposes into active form.

Paul Nash, **Authority and Freedom in Education** N.Y.: John Wiley, 1996, p.235

Volusia County Public Schools

The Volusia County School District is one of sixty-seven county systems in Florida. Its vision statement, adopted in 1992, declares that,

Through the individual commitment of all, our students will graduate with the knowledge, skills, and values necessary to be successful contributors to our democratic society.

There are forty-five elementary schools, ten middle schools, nine high schools, one alternative education school, and an exceptional student education center in Volusia County. Several charter schools have also been recently opened. These public schools enroll about 60,000 students, and the district employs more than 6,000 full and part-time personnel: teachers, support staff, and administrators. Mr William E Hall is Superintendent of Schools in Volusia County.

Approximately 40 percent of the instructional staff have earned masters', educational specialist, or doctoral degrees. It is mainly with Volusia County educators that we hope to dialog. Field visits to an elementary and middle school in the "new" City of Deltona are integral parts of our consultation program.

What, then, is our proposal? In essence it is that the hub of every curriculum be the study of the structure and operation of reconstructed democracy itself. This means, not that other important areas of study are to be neglected, but that these be related to the hub as spokes are in a wheel.

Theodore Brameld, **Ends and Means in Education: A Midcentury**

Appraisal. N.Y.: Harper & Brothers, 1950, p.211

The World Education Fellowship

The World Education Fellowship began by publishing *The New Era* (now *New Era in Education*) in 1920. "... devoted to the progress of education around the world." WEF was formally organized as the New Education Fellowship at Calais, France, the next year. It is a voluntary, non-partisan body open to educators, people in related professions, and the public who have a common interest in improving education at all levels. Maria Montessori and A.S.Neil were among its early members.

The principles of WEF are:

- (a) Education today should help all of us grow as self-respecting, sensitive, confident, well-informed, competent, and responsible individuals in society and the world community.
- (b) People develop these qualities in mutually supportive environments where sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation.
- (c) Learners, as early as possible, should take responsibility for managing their own education in association with others.
- (d) High achievement is best obtained by mobilizing personal motivation and creativity within a context of open access to a variety of learning opportunities.

Today WEF is recognized as a UNESCO related non-governmental organization (n.g.o.) It is an international association with sections and representatives in more than twenty countries. The WEF worldwide headquarters is in London, England and it is the U.S. Section that is collaborating in this consultation. WEF meets biennially in global conferences; the next is to be held in 2001 in South Africa.

If I let my knowledge become a substitute for my understanding, then the light that is in me becomes darkness. If the light that is in me becomes darkness, what a darkness.

Howard Thurman, **The Growing Edge** N.Y.: Harper & Brothers, 1956, p.143

Participants' Life Sketches

Twenty bio-summaries will begin the process of getting acquainted with people who will be at the "21st Century Educational Reconstruction" Consultation. Many more individuals will be introduced in the Consultation Program. This event has been announced worldwide and in the United States, so considerable diversity among the educators who take part in the dialogue is anticipated.

Darrol Bussler is a Minnesota native, an alumnus of Gustavus Adolphus College in St Peter. Darrol earned his PhD at UMN in Minneapolis. He has been the community education coordinator for the South St Paul Public Schools. Darrol currently teaches at Minnesota State University, Mankato, where he is department head. He is the SER Chairperson.

Chris J Colwell is Assistant Superintendent, Curriculum and School Improvement Services, of the Volusia County Public Schools, Florida. Chris earned his undergraduate and masters degrees at Stetson

University and his EdD at the University of Central Florida, Orlando. He helps the public schools meet the state mandated "A+" achievement standards and assists with planning charter schools in the public sector.

David R Conrad is a professor at the University of Vermont in Burlington. A doctoral graduate of Boston University, he specializes in multicultural education and world studies, emphasizing human ecology and social justice issues. **Sally Conrad**, David's wife, has been a member of the Vermont State Legislature in Montpelier for three terms. She advocates and helped to get enacted, legislation supporting the public schools, a clean environment, health care and human rights.

Mike Deal lives in Stratford, Connecticut, where he edits the **SER in Action** and **WEF/USA Worldscope** newsletters. Mike is a middle school social studies teacher in Norwalk, Connecticut who is bilingual in English and German. He has done field studies in Sri Lanka. Mike attended the most recent WEF biennial at Launceston, Tasmania, Australia.

Fred Fourie is the interim minister of the Union United Church of Christ in Ormond Beach, Florida. **Marthinus Riekert** is minister of the United Church of Christ in New Smyrna Beach, Florida. Both are South Africans who grew up in the Dutch Reformed Church there during apartheid. Fred immigrated to the United States quite a while ago, while Marthinus is a relative newcomer here. They will share with us their perspectives of "Education in Post-Apartheid South Africa" in preparation for the WEF biennial in South Africa in 2001.

Mildred M Hait is Professor of Education at The College of New Rochelle, New York, teaching educational psychology, theory and instructional practices. She also supervises student teachers. Her PhD from the University of Maryland was earned as an EPDA Fellow. Earlier she was a teacher and administrator at three secondary schools. A Past-President of WEF/USA, Mildred is a world traveler. Three years ago, for instance, she was a visiting professor for six months at Assumption University, Bangkok, Thailand. Last year she received the Appleby Outstanding Teacher Educator Award from the New York Association of Teacher Educators. Community Service Education is a special interest of Mildred's.

Elizabeth D Heins is Associated Professor of Teacher Education at Stetson University, DeLand, Florida. A graduate of Florida Tech. Betty earned her masters and PhD degrees at the University of Virginia. She currently is the chair of Stetson's Department of Teacher Education.

Alan H Jones is publisher/owner of Caddo Gap Press in San Francisco, specializing in scholarly journals and books on multicultural education, teacher

education, and educational studies. Alan's BA, MA and PhD are in the social sciences and social foundations of education from the University of Michigan. He has been a junior high school teacher and now is an adjunct faculty member at the University of San Francisco. Alan formerly edited **The Education Digest** and was executive editor with Prakken Publications.

Midori Matsuyama Kiso now divides her time between Honolulu, Hawaii and Tokyo, Japan. Raised in Imari on the island of Kyushu, Midori assisted her late husband, Theodore Brameld, with his field research for **Japan: Culture Education and Change in Two communities** (1968). She is, with him, author of **Tourism as Cultural Learning** (1977).

Gertrude F Langsam lives in New Haven, Connecticut where she and her husband, Henry, are active in community service. An alumna of Adelphi University, Gertrude was an adjunct associate professor at her alma mater for many years, as well as at Dowling College. She received a community service award from the New Haven YWCA, and the Langsams have been honored for their social work by their temples in Hamden and Hempstead, New York.

Nibedita (Nita) Mitra is originally from Delhi, India, where her higher education, including a PhD, was at Delhi University. Nita now lives in West Hartford, Connecticut and is adjunct Professor of Anthropology and Anatomy/Physiology at the University of Hartford. She is the new President of WEF/USA and is researching the learning experiences of immigrants to the United States from India.

Frances L O'Neil is Professor of Psychology at Tunxis Community College, Farmington, Connecticut. Fran is a graduate of Stonehill College, earned her MA at Boston State College and her PhD at Uconn. Zen Buddhism and the Japanese Tea Ceremony, as well as ethnographic inquiries regarding the cultures of Native Americans are among her interests.

Roberta (Bert) Perry is the Florida Director of the National Farm Worker Ministry, supported by the National Council of Churches and many denominations. Her office is in DeLand, but Bert is often on the road. As her business card states, "standing with farm workers in the struggle for justice." She is also involved in disaster preparedness education, especially to be ready for hurricanes such as Floyd this September.

Jefferson Rogers directs the Howard Thurman Center at Stetson University, DeLand, Florida. Building on a lifelong commitment to civil rights and healthy interracial relations, he coordinates about eight Thurman Lectures each academic year. They bring together students, faculty and townspeople. Jefferson was the first Race Relations Secretary of the former Evangelical and Reformed Church. He now lives in Daytona Beach.

Frank A Stone was a secondary school teacher and administrator in Tarsus, Turkey for fourteen years prior to being Professor of International Education at Uconn from 1968-1994. The author of **Academies for Anatolia** (1984) and **African American Connecticut** (1991), Frank now lives in DeLand, Florida with his wife, Barbara.

Thomas Mathai Thomas has taught at the University of Bridgeport since 1969. Earlier he was a high school biology teacher in India. Tom came to the United States from Kerala, India, in 1963. His doctorate is from Boston University. He has written books such as **Images of Man** (1970) and **Indian Educational Reforms in Cultural Perspective** (1970).

Patricia Fenn Vann studied at the St Nicolas Montessori Centre in England and directed a Montessori School in Middletown, Connecticut. Her PhD dissertation was a study of Montessori's impact on the British Infant Schools. Pat has taught at the University of Maine and at Wesleyan University. She

and her husband have attended all of the recent WEF biennial conferences.

Gerda Walz-Michaels earned her BA and MA degrees at the University of Hamburg, Germany. Her second MA and PhD are from Uconn. Gerda taught in the Hamburg public schools for thirteen years. She has conducted research about the New Science Movement and recently published a monograph on this topic. Gerda founded and directs Gentle Actions: Institute for Holistic Studies, in Storrs, Connecticut.

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Moving to South Africa: Cooperation between WEF-UNESCO

Peter van Stapele

Introduction

On Monday 16 November 1998, during UNESCO's International Conference of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Paris, I had a meeting with Colin Power, Assistant Director-General for Education of UNESCO. We discussed different aspects of cooperation between UNESCO and WEF, especially the preparations for WEF's 41st International Conference on Education in the year 2001 in Pretoria, South Africa. The Director-General of UNESCO had agreed to assist the WEF in the organisation of this conference, designating Colin Power to be WEF's contact person.

During this conversation Colin Power emphasized the importance of the development of WEF's Youth Forum and informed me that UNESCO would be especially interested in supporting the forum in developing the use of different media of communication and in creating possibilities for young people from different countries to meet each other at WEF's International Conference in South Africa.

For this reason the WEF Youth Forum Exploratory Group (EG), which had been established earlier for the purpose of examining the possibilities of developing the forum, prepared for two members of the group and a youth from Kenya to meet with Colin Power during his stay at WEF's 40th International Conference in Tasmania, Australia - December 1998-January 1999.

Meeting in Tasmania

The conference in Tasmania has been an important step forward in the process of the development of the Youth Forum. Many new contacts were made and the General Assembly of the WEF adopted a motion urging WEF's Guiding Committee (GC) to establish the Youth Forum officially. The members of the EG who attended the conference in Tasmania enjoyed meeting Colin Power and discussed with him ways in which UNESCO could support the development of the forum. Since then the members of the EG have put the plans of the group into action, following up suggestions Colin Power had given them during the meeting in Tasmania, developing a clear statement regarding youth concerns and themes, making connections with other NGOs, developing website activities and increasing international communication.

As a result of the work of the EG, WEF's GC decided to support, in every possible way, the work of the EG. According to the motion of the General Assembly the GC decided that the WEF will establish officially the Youth Forum at its next International Conference in 2001. As discussed with Colin Power on 16 November last year, the EG is working in accordance with UNESCO youth programmes to provide young leaders, particularly from developing countries in different parts of the world, with practical experience in the structure and work of youth organizations and action to be taken to increase the

participation of young people in development and peace to promote international understanding. During the meeting in Tasmania Colin Power again stated that UNESCO could support the development of the Youth Forum, especially to have a strong Youth Forum at WEF's 41st International Conference in Pretoria. For this reason Colin Power urged WEF to apply for UNESCO funding as soon as possible but not later than December 1999.

Preparations of the Exploratory Group

At the same time I have sent UNESCO an overall picture of the background to the development of WEF's Youth Forum based on several articles that were written by young members of the EG, their lectures and discussions at several WEF conferences. Based on the experiences, they thought in 1997-98 that it was important to develop possibilities for exchanging information, ideas and experiences between young people all over the world. They published an article about this idea in the **New Era in Education** (December 1997). The EG received very promising and stimulating responses and suggestions from members and contacts of WEF in Australia, France, Germany, India, Israel, Japan, Kenya, the Netherlands, Nepal, Uganda, the UK and the USA.

Possibilities for Interaction and Activities

During the conference in Tasmania, several contributions were sent through e-mail by members of the EG who organized a workshop in London at the same time as the conference in Tasmania, together with young people from Kenya who live in London and youth from the UK and the Netherlands. This e-mail linkage, also with youth in Kenya, showed the conference delegates in Australia new ways of creating an invigorating climate during the plenary discussions. The conference in Tasmania as well as the simultaneous workshop in London has been a significant starting point to develop the Youth Forum idea into a practical organization.

Different possibilities for interaction between WEF and UNESCO were discussed with Colin Power:

- making connections with other NGOs;
- the development of website activities;
- developing increasing communication, eg increasing access to e-mail in economically less developed countries through using offices of UNESCO worldwide and by using facilities at universities and comparable institutions;
- the exposure of WEF and its Youth Forum through the establishment of youth clubs related to local community needs, and the use of media to influence opinions about and policies on education;
- including learners in dialogues on the

furthering of education;

- providing educators with effective means of feedback and involve them in exchanging information, experiences and ideas;
- supporting young people from different parts of the world to meet each other at international meetings of the WEF.

The members of the EG have made clear that they have experienced that active interaction between educators and learners will inform educators about the concerns, visions and interests of the youth they are teaching. Moreover, such interaction will reinvigorate teaching theories and policies and focus educational debate on practical issues relevant to learners. The exchange among international youth increases knowledge and experience as well as mutual respect and awareness, stimulates conflict resolution and engenders compassion on a global scale. Therefore, a WEF Youth Forum will try to provide a fundamental and practical means to implement the principles of WEF as stated in the WEF constitution (see summary on the back cover of **New Era in Education**) and theories developed in WEF conferences.

The EG in the Netherlands and delegates from youth groups in Kenya and in other countries, will study possibilities to fully include youth from areas where access to internet and/or use of other media of communication is a problem. For example, this might be pointing out central computers where youth can work and finding ways to finance means to satisfy basic communication needs like fax machines, postage, and travel expenses for (national) coordinators.

Recently, based on suggestions put forward through the conference in Tasmania and WEF's General Assembly, WEF's GC in London has invited one of the members of the EG to join the Committee. The GC has also decided that WEF, the Secretariat in London, and the Committee will support the WEF Youth Exploratory Group in developing the WEF Youth Forum as has been described in the 15 February 1999 report of the group, *Development WEF Youth Forum and proposals formulated at WEF's 40th International Conference in Tasmania*, parts of which I have used to write the present report about the cooperation between WEF and UNESCO. Under the guidance of David Turner, WEF's Electronic Communications Secretary, who also met Colin Power in Tasmania, the Exploratory Group will be supported to set up an international network via different media. The EG will work out and put into practice the different possibilities for interaction between WEF and UNESCO as discussed with Colin Power during his meeting with members of the EG.

Moving to South Africa

On 7 July 1999 I wrote to Colin Power in Paris

formally asking the question whether and in which way UNESCO could give financial support to the work of WEF's EG. The members of the GC were thinking of applying to UNESCO for a grant to support the work of the EG in the years 2000-2001 and to invite young people from different countries who are active in developing the Youth Forum, to attend the conference in 2001 in South Africa. At the same time I have sent the information relevant to the development of the Youth Forum to Josef de Beer from Vista University, Pretoria, South Africa, one of the organizers of WEF's 41st International Conference, who also met Colin Power in Tasmania, and with whom I had made contact at an earlier stage. Having been one of the organizers of WEF's conferences myself, I thought it would be necessary that coordinating further developments of cooperation with UNESCO with regard to the development of the Youth Forum related to the conference in 2001, should be passed to the organizers in South Africa.

On 17 September 1999 I wrote to Josef de Beer and to Elrina Whitlock - one of the other organizers of the conference - that on August 26 Colin Power wrote to me that the activity we propose certainly falls within the priorities of UNESCO. He expressed his view that UNESCO could consider supporting the development of the Youth Forum within its Participation Program for the 2000-2001 biennium, if the request was submitted in due form before December 1999 either by WEF directly as the organizer, or by Vista University the host of the conference, through the South African National Commission for UNESCO. Josef de Beer also received a copy of Colin Power's letter. I wrote to Josef de Beer that I thought that we should act according to

Colin Power's suggestions that the request could be submitted before December 1999 by Vista University through the South Africa National Commission for UNESCO, after he has clarified the details about the submission of an adequate Participation Program request. I suggested also that Josef de Beer, Elrina Whitlock and the other local organizers of the conference in 2001 in South Africa will discuss the invitation of young people from different countries to attend the conference in 2001 in Pretoria at a later stage - after December 1999 - with WEF's GC and with the EG, through its member of the GC. I have also sent to all members of the GC itself all information relating to this matter. Although the GC has not had a meeting about the latest developments yet, Josef de Beer recently met David Turner and Christine Wykes, chair of the GC, in London. He informed me over the telephone that the organizers in South Africa will put forward the request, as suggested, to UNESCO for financial support of the development of the Youth Forum in time.

Conclusion

I expect that the results of the cooperation between WEF and UNESCO related to the development of WEF's Youth Forum will move forward in a very positive way and that WEF especially can be proud of the work of the young members of its Exploratory Group.

Peter van Stapele is WEF representative at UNESCO in Paris and Hon Vice-President of WEF

WEF India Section

December 10-15, 1999 will witness the celebrations of 20 years of Jasudben M.L. School. Gujarat Research Society is organising a Rabindranath Tagore festival which will include an exhibition depicting Tagore's life, his literary and art works, and a student project on Tagore. There will, in addition, be an inter-school competition and a cultural programme.

Plans are well advanced for the publication of a book edited by Mrs. Kallolini Hazarat and Dr. Suresh Dalal entitled **In Tune with Tagore**. The main aim of this publication is to take Tagore to the younger generations.

A Human Rights Checklist

Rex Andrews

*The August 1999 issue of **New Era in Education** reminded readers about the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The following mnemonic in verse should help us remember the main elements of the Declaration and our responsibilities. Editor*

All human beings are born free
With equal rights and dignity;
Whatever colour, race or creed,
Sex or language, state or need,
Each has the right to liberty
Exempt from harm or cruelty.

Before the law each is the same
Entitled to uphold his name
'Presumed as innocent' unless
Fair trial proves his guiltiness.
No prison or unjust arrest,
Or untried laws should him molest.

All have the right to private life;
To choose their husband or their wife;
To found a home and family
And move about at liberty;
To have a nationality
And safety, if a refugee.

Their letters and their property
Must be from interference free;
Their thoughts, opinions, faith and friends
Are freely theirs, for their own ends.
For public service all are free;
And to vote in a democracy.

Social security should be
To all admitted equally;
And right to rest; and right to learn;
And right to choose a job and earn
A wage that's adequate and fair
To all the men and women there.

Mothers and children all should be
Helped and cared for specially.
Free culture, art and science are mean
For personal development.

BUT - Rights, and fair facilities
Impose RESPONSIBILITIES!

**Dr Rex Andrews is a past editor of New Era in Education
and a member of the Editor's Advisory Team.**

International Year of Volunteers, 2001

Report of the Economic and Social Council

Draft Resolution recommended by the Economic and Social Council

The General Assembly

Recalling its resolutions 2659 (XXV) of 7 December 1970, 31/131 of 16 December 1976, 31/166 of 21 December 1976, 40/212 of 17 December 1985 and 49/139 B of 20 December 1994, and bearing in mind decision 96/32 of the Executive Board of the United Nations Development Programme/United Nations Population Fund, in which the Executive Board acknowledged the importance of the contribution made by volunteers worldwide and expressed its support for the efforts of the United Nations Volunteers to promote further volunteer work,

Taking into account its decision 35/424 of 5 December 1980 and Economic and Social Council resolution 1980/67 of 25 July 1980 concerning guidelines for international years and anniversaries,

Noting the significant contribution that volunteers make in their own countries to improve the welfare and realizing the aspirations of their fellow citizens for improved economic and social well-being, and the financing of their work largely through civil society, including the private sector, as well as the important achievements of volunteers assigned internationally to the attainment of the development goals of Member States,

Noting the assistance provided by the United Nations Volunteers, in particular to United Nations organizations and operations in the fields of social and economic development, humanitarian aid and the promotion of peace, democracy and respect for human rights, and above all in helping to link these efforts closely to the populations for whom they are intended,

Also noting the importance of new players taking the initiative at the local, national and international levels, particularly individuals and organizations of civil society, in partnership with Governments, as emphasized in the Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development and the Programme of Action of the World summit for Social Development,

Bearing in mind the conclusion of the Fourth World Conference on Women, that women should be enabled to benefit from lifelong learning, including volunteer activity and noting that much volunteer activity is performed by women and that such socially useful work should be appropriately recognized and supported,

Convinced that the need for volunteer effort is greater than ever in light of the adverse impact of such global problems as environmental degradation,

poverty, drug abuse and human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome on the more vulnerable sectors of society, and of the trend for civil society, in partnership with government and the private sector, to assume ever greater responsibilities in the development process,

Also convinced that a year designed to enhance the recognition, facilitation, networking and promotion of volunteer service, with particular emphasis upon activity at the local level, could make a significant contribution to generating increased awareness of the achievements and further potential of volunteer service, to encouraging offers to service from a greatly expanded number of individuals and to channelling resources to augment the effectiveness of such service,

Noting with satisfaction that the proposal for the year has gained widespread support within civil society,

- 1 Proclaims 2001 the International Year of Volunteers;
- 2 Invites Governments, the United Nations system and intergovernmental, volunteer and non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations to collaborate and identify ways and means of enhancing the recognition, facilitation, networking and promotion of volunteer service in the preparations for and observance of the Year;
- 3 Designates the United Nations Volunteers programme, without prejudice to existing priorities, as the focal point for preparations, implementation and follow-up of the Year in close collaboration with other organizations of the United Nations system, and encourages the United Nations Volunteers to continue the process of close collaboration and partnership with governments and international and national volunteer and non-governmental organizations, in particular, with regard to the preparations for and implementation of the Year;
- 4 Invites policy-making organs and the relevant organizations of the United Nations system to consider, in the context of their substantive mandates, the principles and objectives of the Year, making special efforts through new and existing programmes during the period 1998-

2001 and to pursue follow-up action to the Year for the benefit of all countries and peoples;

5 Appeals to Member States, as well as all other participants in the observance of the Year, to highlight 2001 as a special occasion benefiting the peoples of the world in their quest for a better life for all, based on the voluntary commitment of individuals and groups to make available their time and share their resources and skills in the interest of those less advantaged;

6 Calls for a concerted promotional and information campaign on behalf of the Year at the national, regional and international levels, with the strong participation of the mass media;

7 Requests the Secretary-General to take specific measures, within existing resources and with support from voluntary resources, through all

the communications media at his disposal, in particular within the mandate of the Department of Public Information of the Secretariat, to give widespread publicity to the preparations for and observance of the Year and to disseminate information on the subject.

Further information about IYV 2001 is available from **Team IYV 2001**:

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Questions for WEF GB Members

The latest newsletter invites members to give their points of view on the following three questions:

Will Performance Related Pay work in schools?

Research carried out by the London School of Economics suggests that PRP is unlikely to improve performance in schools

This was an independent study carried out for the NUT.

Alternatively should we instead be trying to look at ways of trying to make this work in our schools, not be too conservative in our outlook?

Is 'stress' an issue we need to take seriously?

In the light of Muriel Benson's recent settlement figure of £47,000 for teacher stress, is there a genuine problem of workload?

Are teachers finding it more and more difficult to cope with all the demands being made upon their time - especially as a result of all the recent changes that have been introduced?

Should we be moving to a five term year?

Research suggests that there would be no real benefit for the children in moving to a five term year. The long summer break also provides a valuable opportunity for teachers to recharge their batteries. Perhaps more importantly, this time provides children with an opportunity to play, something which is becoming increasingly difficult to do in schools because of pressures of time-tabling in the literacy and numeracy sessions.

Alternatively should we not accept that for some children the long summer break just means that teachers have to spend several weeks every year going over old ground because the children have forgotten so much.

Mark Jones is the Secretary of WEF GB

Reviews

Homing In -A Practical Resource For Religious Education by Angela Wood with Jane Oxley, Lesley Prior and Pauline Sims, Trentham Books, Stoke-on-Trent, England, 1998, 160 pages, £12.95, ISBN 0-948080-87-6.

The commendable aim of this book is to enable primary teachers to use the 'home corner' in their classrooms as a way to introduce different religions with young children. It mainly consists of instructions (some with templates) for making dressing-up clothes and home-made versions of artefacts likely to be found in the homes of members of the five religions covered (i.e. Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism and Sikhism but not Buddhism). For each of these it also includes two suggested cross-curricular topic contexts, a double-page line drawing (mostly based in the home, but the Sikh one is a wedding in a hall) a page of small black and white photographs, 3 recipes, and some simplified texts from their scriptures and traditional prayers to make into classroom versions of holy books. The Judaism section also has four pages of 'unidentified faith object' sketches (seemingly related to the Passover, and mysteriously numbered, but with no explanation). Each section begins with some background information about the religion, and alerts readers to some issues involved.

I imagine **New Era in Education** readers, like me, want to encourage awareness of diversity, so would welcome any resource which could inspire this. However, alongside the wider perspective of valuing its 'multicultural' aspects, the resource must also be evaluated in terms of the aims and constraints of its particular curriculum area. I will, therefore, consider some of the religious education issues raised in the book's rationale, and then critique in more detail the materials for each religion for classroom use.

The opening chapter states some of the positive aspects of this approach, such as its value in affirming children's home cultures, extending their experiences, and its social and linguistic potential. However a key religious issue emerges when it emphasises the 'experiential' essence of assuming roles in the context of a specific religious home *including make-believe and ritualised behaviour*. It clarifies that this is not an attempt at 'multiple conversion' (?) and the need to 'de-role' after such play, but does not deal with the religious issue of whether, or how far, it is appropriate for children to play-act aspects of a religion they do not belong to. The book contains no suggestions about what the children might do with the objects, other than assist in making some of them, but, for example, the

Hindu 'murti' (images of gods/goddesses) and 'puja' (worship) objects are likely to be used in simulated worship. This play-acting, while fine for Hindu children, could be inappropriate for others, and may offend the religious sensibilities of families from other religions. Separating children by religious affiliation would perhaps solve the problem, but may not be acceptable or sustainable in practice. Perhaps these are the 'sensitivities' behind the later suggested alternative of using some of the ideas to make a museum of a particular faith, which would provide a context in which some of the aims and benefits of the approach could still be achieved. It would respect the integrity of children who may be old enough to appreciate the implications of actions, and parents, teachers and faith communities on behalf of younger ones, although it may lose some of the impact and advantages of the 'home corner' experiential learning. This basic methodological issue is a concern for each of the religions to a greater or lesser extent.

The material on individual religions contains, in the topic suggestions, an assumption of a cross-curricular approach which is becoming increasingly rare (perhaps betraying the nine year gestation period of the book). Making some of the artefacts could be useful for technology, however, although many would require a high level of adult involvement. For a religious education resource it is particularly disappointing that there is often inadequate guidance about the religious use and symbolic interpretation of the items. Similarly the pictures intended for classroom resources have no explanations or even identifications for the teacher's information. Guesswork de-coding is needed, but some are puzzling (e.g. the 'Christian' meal, a baby's first communion dress) and some may be religiously questionable (e.g. the Muslim woman with the Qur'an resting on her lap).

The classroom holy books idea is perhaps the most useful, although references for the teacher would be helpful. I wonder why the 'cuddly Torah' (!) is presented in book form with a scroll-shaped cover, rather than the more authentic and interesting scroll format.

Most of the religious background material is accurate, although (contrary to most RE textbooks' oversimplification of Hinduism) many Vaisnavas would argue with the statement that murtis are not worshipped. They object to the term 'idol' because they consider the murti, such as Krishna, an authentic focus of a 'deity', not an arbitrary or false image. In relation to attempting a typical Christian home, although the issues involved in the use of the term 'Christian' are

discussed theoretically, the difficulty remains that many Christians would find presenting a mixture of Roman Catholic, Orthodox, Anglican, and Pentecostal items unacceptable, or at least less than authentic.

I was delighted at the prospect of a practical, experiential RE resource that would encourage genuine multicultural curriculum possibilities in primary classrooms, but am sadly disappointed by the quality of this book, and by the lack of guidelines for using the artefacts and pictures. I have reservations about recommending it unless used by, or with advice from, someone able to make effective use of its RE potential, and discern and deal sensitively with its religious implications. For such a situation there are some useful ideas and possible resources which are clearly the result of much time and labour.

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Improving Education: Realist Approaches to Method and Research edited by Joanna Swann and John Pratt, 1999, London: Cassell Education, ISBN 0-304-70554-3, 196 pages, £18.99.

How many Popperian educators does it take to change a light bulb? On the evidence provided by this book, there are so few Popperian educators about that we may never find out.

The arguments [presented in this book], the editors tell us (page 9), though diverse, share a realist approach, and in general take a broadly Popperian view of the nature of knowledge. The intention, we are told, is not to be doctrinaire, but to present a stimulating variety of views which might be broadly classified as developments of a science of education based on the philosophy of Karl Popper (page 15).

Leaving aside Henry Perkinson, whose Preface provides proof, if proof were needed, that he understands and follows Popperian principles, how many of the other contributors qualify? James Tooley - I do not think that Popper has the final word to say on this issue, and I would not call myself a Popperian (p. 178)? David Corson - [Popper's theory] lacked a sense of human sociality when applied to a human science field like education (p. 69)? Richard Bailey - whose brief but interesting critique of post-modernism makes no reference to Popper? Ronald Swartz - who quotes Agassi with approval; [Popper's] opinion always was that children are authoritarian by nature

and they have to be charmed by their teachers and educated in an authoritarian manner - in order to have them grow out of their authoritarianism, need one say, I do not agree (p. 107)? Or Yvonne Hillier - who makes an attempt to set Kelly's personal construct theory in a Popperian context, but wisely gives up the struggle and turns to the description of her own work in adult education?

The point is not that the authors have differing perspectives, since the editors could legitimately argue that Popperian methods encourage criticism, debate and the testing of ideas and theories against each other. The problem here is that the majority of the contributors advance ideas which make it very clear that they are entirely indifferent to the philosophy of Popper, have not understood it, or hold to principles which are in direct opposition to those advanced by Popper.

A Popperian, Tooley tells us (p. 172), would be concerned with research methods such as triangulation and avoiding sampling bias. Indeed, Tooley makes a good deal of sample sizes, and the need to base research claims upon adequate samples. One can only suppose that he has never read Popper, or has not recognised that at the heart of Popperian philosophy is an asymmetry between proof and disproof - proof through the presentation of confirming cases is impossible, but a single contrary case disproves. In critical, Popperian tests, the last thing which one needs to be concerned with is sample size or triangulation. It is almost a relief when, in the final paragraphs of his chapter, Tooley abandons any attempt to reconcile his ideas with Poppers, and comes out with a spirited defence of induction.

Similarly, Corson, in his chapter on Post-Popper Realism makes it very clear that he is more interested in presenting the ideas of Bhaskar than in exploring the fruitfulness of Poppers. Bhaskar either stands firmly on the shoulders of Popper or disagrees sharply with him (p.70). But even when Bhaskar is presented as standing on the shoulders of the giant, one suspects that their agreement is more in the mind of Corson than anywhere else. Like Popper, Bhaskar highlights the centrality of language in the process of discovery in the human sciences. We cannot escape from our language, which he describes as that system of differences which we exploit to produce meaning and in virtue of which meaning is produced for us (p. 71). One can only wonder at what is like Popper about this statement. Certainly, it does not call to mind very strongly Popper's complaint that the logical positivists were interested only in futile problems of meaning nor his own assertion that he was interested in truth, and not in meaning.

Who does this leave to exemplify a Popperian approach? Most obviously the editors of the volume themselves. And of those, Swann has a tendency

towards the seductive, but ultimately fruitless, pursuit of a purist approach to Popper: Swann sets up a straw man of objectives-based planning which she proceeds to demonstrate is inferior to (Popperian) problem-based planning. I am aware of the argument that the formulation of a practical problem is in itself an objective. This argument can be countered in the following way (p. 64).

Fortunately, the readers have been warned against asking Why? questions (p. 40). Otherwise, they would doubtless be asking, with one voice, Why on earth is it necessary to counter that argument? Why, indeed, when there are so many worse things going on in education, expend so much effort on an attack on objectives-based planning?

Pratt offers us a number of applications of the approach to specific policies, although these are case studies which have appeared elsewhere in his work. Indirectly, however, he poses what must surely be the key question. Drawing on the work of Magee, who, in the absence of clear statements from Popper, must be about as near as we can get to an authoritative statement of the Popperian position, Pratt argues. In Policy, as Magee points out, all government policies, indeed all executive and administrative decisions, involve empirical predictions: if we do X, Y will follow: on the other hand if we want to achieve B we must do A. In this sense, as Magee goes on, a policy is a hypothesis (p.46). What we all want to know from a Popperian science of education is, where are these hypotheses, and where is the catalogue of critical tests which they have survived?

Swann (pp. 118-119) appears to be on the verge of providing such material, if not in fact, at least in a thought experiment:

Given that class L is a class of between 20 and 25 children, taught for two years from the age of seven to nine by a teacher who acknowledges the logic of learning (as per the principles, methodology, practices and skills set out in Swann 1988), and Class N is a comparable class taught by a teacher who does not acknowledge the logic of learning, then there does not exist a situation in which the progress of children (with regard to demonstrable improvements in self-confidence, social skills, attitudes to learning, literacy and the use of oral language) in Class L will be less than or merely equivalent to that of children in Class N.

That seems clear enough, but Swann immediately goes on to recognise that she has set up a test which is not entirely fair: The range of specifiable improvements included in the hypothesis is, of course, value-laden and rooted in the philosophy which has generated the logic-of-learning approach. To test the logic-of-learning approach in terms of, for example, England's national curriculum attainment targets and related

standardized tests is not being proposed.

Why? or rather Why not? questions come rushing to mind unbidden. If the ultimate test of education is a choice between multiplication tables and social skills, to put it at its crudest, there can be no science of education, and there is little point in setting up hypotheses. If the question is how best to inculcate multiplication tables or social skills once we have chosen them as desirable goals, then we might be at the beginning of a science of education. But hypotheses which have been tested and withstood any kind of critical examination are few and far between in the literature of Popperian social science. One has the sense that, after calling for boldness and creativity and a willingness to learn from mistakes, Popperian authors, like the rest of us, eventually decide that such risks are not worth the candle. In this, Swann and Pratt and the various contributors to this volume are remarkably like other folk.

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Acting in Classroom Drama. A Critical Analysis, by Gavin Bolton with a foreword by David Davis, 1998, Trentham Books in association with the University of Central England, Birmingham, ISBN 1 85856 109 4, pp302, price £15.95

It is my contention that conceptually there is nothing which differentiates the child acting in the classroom from the actor on the stage of the theatre. (Hornbrook 1989:104).

Gavin Bolton (p.XVI) considers this to be a rather extreme statement, challenging the very basis of progressive drama education.

For deeply embedded in my own professional theory and practice was the assumption that what actors do on the stage is fundamentally different from what children do in the classroom.

Hornbrook's position nevertheless remained as an issue at the back of Bolton's mind, and in the conclusion at the end of his book, which is a condensed and revised version of a doctoral thesis (Bolton 1997), he returns to Hornbrook's quotation, suggesting that performing *per se* - using 'acting' and 'performing' synonymously - is defined by the interest of the actors and/or spectators.

This is acting...in its purest or most traditional

sense, applying equally to what the actor does on stage and to what the child may do in the classroom. Differences in such features as quality, style, or spontaneity will vary from classroom to classroom and from stage to stage, but essentially it qualifies as 'performing' because it commends attention to itself as an achievement (p.276).

In his book Bolton describes and discusses a general view of drama teaching during the end of the nineteenth and the largest part of the twentieth century, with the intention both to provide an historical perspective and to recommend a reformulation of classroom acting behaviour. Sections one to four of the book stand as a summary of some major publications. By selecting from a combination of pioneers and trends, those publications are analysed from the following perspectives:

- 1 placing both the pioneer and the identified trend in an historical context;
- 2 giving an account of the methodology of each pioneer or trend;
- 3 drawing inferences from the publications about the various authors' assumptions;
- 4 opening up on some aspects of acting behaviour.

Bolton's book describes a wide range of classroom practice and provides an overall analysis of theory. Although the book is, in general, restricted to classroom drama in British education, the results of Bolton's analysis, and especially what he works out in the fifth section of the book, Towards a conceptual framework for classroom acting behaviour, could be put, throughout the world, to theoretical and practical; use in developing sections of primary and secondary school curricula for a wide variety in teaching classroom drama.

Literature mentioned in the review:

Bolton, Gavin (1997) **A Conceptual Framework for Classroom Acting Behaviour**, Ph.D, thesis, University of Durham.

Hornbrook, David (1989) **Education and Dramatic Art**, Blackwell, Oxford.

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Contributions are welcome on any other areas of the work of the World Education Fellowship. They should be sent to the editor, Dr. Sneha Shah, Faculty of Humanities, Languages and Education, University of Hertfordshire, Watford Campus, Aldenham, Hertfordshire, UK, WD2 8AT, tel: +44(0)1707 285677, fax: +44(0)1707 285616.

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References and bibliographies should normally be presented as follows:

Adams, E. (1955) **Testing Individual Children**, London, UK, Wimbledon Press

Adams, E. (1975) Profiling, **New Journal**, 5(3), 55-74

Adams, E. (1981) Self-managed Learning pp 168-183 in Andrews, R (ed) **The Power to Learn, London, UK**, Special Press

Adams, E. (ed)(1988) **Profiles and Record Keeping (Third Edition)**, London, UK, Special Press

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